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CURRENT HISTORY

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE
THE EUROPEAN WAR

SEPTEMBER 1915

AFTER WARSAW?

FACING THE 2^d YEAR

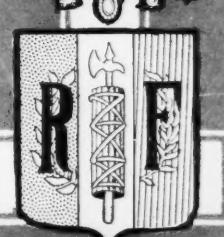
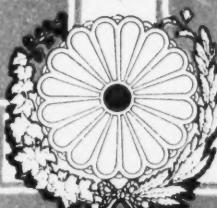
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Such is not the intention of the publishers. When military operations happily cease, innumerable questions will remain for discussion and settlement by international conferences. The period immediately following the war will be one in which the nations will be brought together as never before. The United States already has lost that aloofness from Europe that has hitherto marked its foreign policy, and international affairs will take on a far keener interest for the people of this country than heretofore.

The drift of events, which it requires no prophet to see, will bring

about a natural transformation of **CURRENT HISTORY** from a history of the war into a magazine of international affairs. So long as the war lasts **CURRENT HISTORY** will be devoted exclusively to the war and related subjects. In the critical period following the war, when the foundations of a new state of civilization are being laid, **CURRENT HISTORY** will strive to record and interpret for its readers the course of those momentous events, and also will pay due regard to the larger questions affecting this country in both its domestic and foreign affairs.

It is not necessary to outline a more definite program at present. We merely wish to remove any misconception as to the permanency and future conduct of **CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE**; it has come to stay and to grow with the unrolling of events.

The New York Times
CURRENT HISTORY
MAGAZINE

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CURRENT HISTORY

THE EUROPEAN WAR

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GENERAL VON BUELOW

Whose Advance Threatened the Retirement of the Russian Armies from
Warsaw



GENERAL VON WOYRSCH
Commander of the German Army That Took Ivangorod After Warsaw Fell
(Photo from Bain News Service)

The New York Times

CURRENT HISTORY

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

THE EUROPEAN WAR

SEPTEMBER, 1915

Facing the Second Year

Outgivings by Heads and Leading Men of the Warring Nations

So rich and authoritative an assemblage of appraisals of the war's progress as appears below from leaders of the nations on the occasion of the first anniversary of the conflict, has not been gathered together during any of its previous stages. It is alike a retrospect and a prospect as the powers stand facing the second year of the mightiest struggle of history. Whether the war can go on for another year, with its tremendous wastage of life and wealth, is a question that is grappled with from the standpoints of the nations involved, as incidental to the question of ultimate victory.

"God Is With Us"

By the German Emperor

Emperor William II. issued the following manifesto from German Army Headquarters on Sunday, Aug. 1, 1915:

ONE year has elapsed since I was obliged to call to arms the German people. An unprecedented time of bloodshed has befallen Europe and the world.

Before God and history my conscience is clear. I did not will the war.

After preparations for a whole decade the coalition powers, to whom Germany had become too great, believed that the moment had come to humiliate the empire, which loyally stood by her Austro-Hungarian ally in a just cause, or to

crush it in an overwhelming circle. No lust for conquest, as I already announced a year ago, has driven us into the war.

When in the days of August all able-bodied men were rushed to the colors and troops were marched into a defensive war, every German on earth felt, in accordance with the unanimous example of the Reichstag, that it was a fight for the highest good of the nation, its life, its freedom. What awaited us if the enemy force succeeded in determining the fate of our people and of Europe has been shown in the hardship endured by my dear province, East Prussia.

The consciousness that the fight was

forced upon us accomplished miracles. Political conflict of opinion became silent; old opponents began to understand and esteem each other; the spirit of true comradeship governed the entire people.

Full of gratitude, we can say today that God was with us. The enemy armies who boasted that they would enter Berlin in a few months are with heavy blows driven back far east and west. Numberless battlefields in various parts of Europe, and naval battles off near and distant coasts, testify what German anger in self-defense and German strategy can do. No violation of international law by our enemies will be able to shake the economic foundation of our conduct of the war.

The communities of agriculture, industry, commerce, science, and technical art have endeavored to soften the stress of war. Appreciating the necessity of measures for the free intercourse of goods, and wholly devoted to the care of their brethren in the field, the population at home has strained all its energies to parrying the common danger.

With deep gratitude the Fatherland today and always will remember its warriors—those who, defying death, show a bold front to the enemy; those who, wounded or ill, return; those, above all, who rest from battle on foreign soil or

at the bottom of the sea. With mothers, widows, and orphans I feel grief for the beloved who have died for their Fatherland.

Internal strength and a unanimous national will in the spirit of the founders of the empire guarantee victory. The dikes they erected in anticipation that we once more should have to defend that which we gained in 1870 have defied the highest tide in the world's history.

After unexampled proofs of personal ability and national energy, I cherish the bright confidence that the German people, faithfully preserving the purification acquired through war, will vigorously proceed on the tried old ways and confidently enter the new.

Great trials make the nation reverent and firm of heart. In heroic action we suffer and work without wavering until peace comes; peace which offers us the necessary military and political economies and guarantees for a future which fulfills the conditions for the unhindered development of our producing energy at home and on the free seas.

Thus we shall emerge with honor from a war for Germany's right and freedom, however long the war may last, and be worthy of victory before God, who, we pray, may bless henceforth our arms.

WILHELM.

Pope Benedict's Anniversary Plea for Peace

The text of the peace appeal issued on the first anniversary of the war by Pope Benedict appears below:

WHEN we were called to succeed to the apostolic throne of Pope Pius X., whose upright and exemplary life was brought to an end by the fratricidal struggle which broke out in Europe, we, too, felt—after gazing fearfully upon the bloody battlefield—the despair of a father who witnesses his home torn asunder and ravaged by a furious tempest.

We thought with inexpressible sorrow of our young sons cut down by death;

we felt in our heart, enlarged by Christian charitableness, the great unspeakable sadness of mothers and of wives made widows before their time, and the tears of children deprived too soon of parental guidance.

Participating in our soul in the fear and anguish of innumerable families, and well knowing the imperial duties imposed upon us by the mission of peace and love with which we have been confided during these sad days, we adopted a firm resolve to concentrate our whole activity and all our power to the reconciliation of the peoples at war. We made a solemn promise to our Divine Father, who

wished with the price of His blood to make all men brothers.

Words of peace and love were the first we addressed to the nations and their chiefs as the supreme guardian of their souls. Our affectionate and insistent counsels as father and friend were not heard. This increased our sadness, but did not shake our resolution. We continue with confidence to appeal to the All-powerful, who holds in His hands the minds and hearts of subjects as well as Kings, imploring Him to end the great scourge.

In our humble but ardent prayer we want to include all the faithful, and, to make it more effective, we have taken care that it be accompanied by works of Christian penitence.

Today, on the sad anniversary of the terrible conflict, our heart gives forth the wish that the war will soon end. We raise again our voice to utter a fatherly cry for peace. May this cry, dominating the frightful noise of arms, reach the warring peoples and their chiefs and induce kindly and more serene intentions.

In the name of the Lord God, in the name of the Father and Lord in heaven, in the name of the blessed blood of Jesus—the price of the redemption of humanity—we implore the belligerent nations, before Divine Providence, henceforth to end the horrible carnage which for a year has been dishonoring Europe.

This is the blood of brothers that is being shed on land and sea. The most beautiful regions of Europe—this garden of the world—are sown with bodies and ruins. There, where recently fields and factories thrived, cannon now roar in a frightful manner, in a frenzy of demolitions, sparing neither cities nor villages, and spreading the ravages of death.

You who before God and men are charged with the grave responsibility of peace and war, listen to our prayer, listen to the fatherly voice of the vicar of the eternal and supreme Judge to whom you should give account of your public works as well as private actions.

The abundant riches which the creating God has given to your lands permit you to continue the contest. But at what a price! Is the answer of thousands of

young whose lives are lost each day on the battlefields, and of the ruins of so many cities and villages, so many monuments, due to the piety and genius of our forefathers?

The bitter tears which flow in the sanctity of homes and at the foot of altars, do they not also repeat that the price of the continuation of the contest is great, too great?

And it cannot be said that the immense conflict cannot be ended without violence of arms. May this craze for destruction be abandoned; nations do not perish. Humiliated and oppressed, they tremblingly carry the yoke imposed on them and prepare their revenge, transmitting from generation to generation a sorrowful heritage of hate and vengeance.

Why not now weigh with serene conscience the rights and just aspiration of the peoples? Why not start with good will a direct or indirect exchange of views with the object of considering as far as possible these rights and aspirations, and thus put to an end the terrible combat, as has been the case previously under similar circumstances?

Blessed be he who first extends the olive branch and tenders his hand to the enemy in offering his reasonable condition of peace.

The equilibrium of world progress and the security and tranquillity of nations repose on mutual well-being and respect of the right and dignity of others more than on the number of armies and a formidable zone of fortresses.

It is the cry of peace which issues from our supreme soul this sad day and which invites the true friends of peace in the world to extend their hands to hasten the end of a war which for a year has transformed Europe into an enormous battlefield.

May Jesus in His pity, by the intermediary of the Mother of Sorrows, end the terrible tempest and cause to arise a radiant dawn and the quietude of peace formed in His own Divine image. May hymns of thanks to the Most High Author of all good things soon resound.

Let us hope for the reconciliation of the States; may the people once again become brothers and return to their peace-

ful labor in arts, learning, and industry; may once again the empire of justice be established; may the people decide henceforth to confine the solution of their differences no longer to the sword, but to courts of justice and equity, where the questions may be studied with necessary calm and thought.

This will be the most beautiful and glorious victory. In confidence that the

tree of peace will soon allow the world to enjoy again its fruits which are so much to be desired, we bestow our apostolic benediction upon all those who are part of the mystic flock which is confided to our keeping, even also upon those who do not yet belong to the Roman Church. We pray the Holy Father to unite Himself to us by bonds of perfect charity.

BENEDICT XV.

The German Army's Achievements

By Major Ernest Morah

Major Ernest Morah, the military correspondent of the Berliner Tageblatt, reviewing the twelve months of the war for The Associated Press, said on July 31:

AYEAR ago a coalition with a powerful numerical superiority declared war on Austria-Hungary and Germany. The hostile countries have a far larger population than have the two central powers, and their combined armies originally outnumbered those of the latter. The Central States, however, have known how to improve this difficult situation by alternately taking the offensive and defensive on the western and eastern fronts.

In the west the German armies, in a rapid, triumphant advance, carried their standards to within fifty miles of Paris and have kept them flying there since mid-September. Even though the right and left wings of our wide-flung battle front in France and Belgium have been bent back since then, (because there was no other method for the time being of counteracting the numerical superiority of the British, French, and Belgians,) still we hold the positions, fortified during the nine months, firmly in our hands, so that almost all of Belgium and the northeastern departments of France have been occupied by the troops of Germany.

In the east the Austro-German armies first held up the Russian millions on the Galician frontiers and then were forced

to retire before a manifold numerical superiority, to intrench themselves on the crest of the Carpathians and to beat back until May 1 the Russian assaults with heavy losses. Meanwhile Field Marshal von Hindenburg, in East Prussia, was able to destroy several large Russian armies and free East Prussia; to occupy, conjointly with Austrian troops, Poland almost to the Vistula River, and in the northeast to carry the war into the Russian provinces.

While the positions in the war in the west continue to surge to and fro, and three great attempts made to break through our lines, in the Winter, Spring, and Summer, were repulsed with awful losses to our enemies, the German and Austro-Hungarian armies on May 1 launched a great offensive against the Russian main armies in Galicia.

In the series of battles and under constant pursuit the Russians were hunted out of 43,470 square miles of Galicia, their principal force was severed at several places, and they were driven eastward and northward.

The west bank of the Vistula in Poland has been cleared of Russian armies. The siege of Warsaw is about to begin and Field Marshal von Hindenburg, in the northward, has pressed forward against Riga and now has reached the vicinity of the city after numerous victories. The successes of the Germans have cost the Russian army millions in dead, wounded,

and prisoners. The Russian Empire possesses only fragments of its mighty armies and no longer can supply these adequately with arms and munitions. Their fate will be decided very shortly. The Russian forces will be destroyed or forced to flee deep into the interior to the eastward.

The battles in the west have cut so deeply into the French strength that now 18-year-old lads must bear arms. Great Britain's original army has been destroyed and only enough substitutes can be raised to hold a forty-four mile front in Belgium. The British losses, particularly those of officers, have been very heavy. The army of 3,000,000 men which Lord Kitchener promised six months ago has not yet appeared, and our opponents in the west never again will be able to raise superior forces to expel the Germans from the country.

The action in the Dardanelles, which has been in progress for months against the Turks, shows results for the British and French only in great losses of men, ships, and war supplies of all kinds. The Turkish Army steadily is improving in numbers and quality. The Turkish fortifications are quite as strong as they were at the outset. The prospects of the attackers reaching Constantinople, therefore, have vanished, and since none of the Balkan States are willing to enter the Anglo-French service, and since the Russian army which should have participated from Odessa has been destroyed in Galicia, it is difficult to see any chances for France and Great Britain.

Should Italy send an army to the Dardanelles it will find a superior Turkish Army ready to receive her. Italy, after conducting mobilization secretly for nine months, entered the field against Austria-Hungary at the end of May. An Italian Army 1,000,000 men strong has been attempting for two months to sweep over the fortified Austrian passes and to cross the Isonzo River, behind which the Austro-Hungarian defensive army occupies strong positions. All the attempts

of the Italians up to the present have been unsuccessful. The cost to the attackers has been hundreds of thousands in dead and wounded. Austria-Hungary grows stronger day by day, and although its valiant struggle is a difficult one against Italian superiority in numbers it will be able to bar the way to the coastland and to Trieste and Tyrol. Meanwhile Italy has lost her entire colony at Tripoli to the Arabs, and apparently is about to declare war on Turkey.

The Serbian Army, after great losses in the Winter, has undertaken no military operations, being content to guard the frontiers of its country, on which there no longer is an Austro-Hungarian army.

The other Balkan States are about to decide which side they will take in the war. Since Russia's forces have been driven back and badly beaten and a German and Austro-Hungarian Army has been arrayed near the frontier of Rumania, Bulgaria has come to an understanding with Turkey, and Greece remains the opponent of Italy, and an increase in the number of our enemies under control of the Entente Allies no longer is to be anticipated by Austria-Hungary.

The Germans have every reason, therefore, at the end of the first year of the war to consider their sacrifices in blood and treasure have been rewarded. We are well prepared for a continuance of the war. Our nation still possesses determination to conquer and to make the necessary sacrifices. Our supplies of war material are assured by efficient organization. Our finances are far from exhausted, and there is no lack of provisions. Our fleet, despite a few losses among the cruisers, is ready to be thrown into the struggle at the proper moment and in full strength, and our submarines in all the seas are the dread of our enemies. Thus their offensive has changed to a defensive, and the prospects of eventual victory for the central powers is materially increased.

The German Navy in the War

By Captain I. Persius

Although the main German and British fleets have not been matched in battle, the ending of the first year of the war finds that Germany has distinguished herself at sea, says Captain I. Persius in a review prepared for The Associated Press. Captain Persius, formerly an officer of the German Navy, is a recognized authority on German naval affairs, and is naval expert of the Berliner Tageblatt. He says Germany's policy has been to attempt to weaken her chief opponent at sea by using submarines and mines to a point where there will be some prospect of success of an attack on the main British fleet. His review, published Aug. 1, 1915, follows:

THE German fleet may boast that the offensive spirit it has displayed has constituted the most prominent and decisive feature of all the naval war theatres. War was declared against Russia on Aug. 1, and on Aug. 2 the cruiser Augsburg bombarded the Russian war port of Libau. The declaration of war against France was issued Aug. 3, and on the following day the cruisers Goeben and Breslau shelled the troop embarkation points of Philippeville and Bona, on the North African Coast. Finally, England declared war on Aug. 4, and on the 8th the minelayer Koenigin Luise planted mines at the mouth of the Thames, one of which destroyed the cruiser Amphion.

We thus see that from the very beginning German warships displayed a spirit of daring offensive. Not only in European waters but in distant seas we heard of victorious combats wherein our cruisers were engaged. In a majority of cases the foreign cruisers, like the home units, fought against much superior forces.

In Germany the gigantic task of our sea forces is in no wise underestimated. We know that the British fleet alone, so far as material strength is concerned,

is considerably more than twice our superior, but we are certain that the same heroic spirit of determination to win exists in the fleet as in the army, and that we can depend upon the efficiency of our material which, even though inferior in quantity, can brave comparison with that of any other power for excellence in construction of artillery and machinery.

We do not forget that the British fleet, first in the world and of glorious history, is an opponent worthy of all respect. Nevertheless, at the close of the first year of the war, it may be said without exaggeration, that its achievements do not measure up to our expectations. It has lacked, it seems, the iron determination and ability to conquer.

The British Admiralty has held strictly to "the strategy of caution." The German submarine danger is, we realize, partly responsible, but it cannot be questioned that, as a consequence of undeniably evident lack of initiative, the prestige of the British sea power no longer stands so unshaken throughout the world as formerly. British forces have been victorious only in engagements where they were overwhelmingly superior, as at the Falkland Islands, and even this is not claimed by the British press to be an unconditional success, because the battle was too costly in time and sacrifice.

Our naval authorities followed generally the principle of keeping battleships in harbor while attempting to weaken the enemy through minor warfare, particularly with submarine and mines, to a point where the attack on the main fleet will offer some prospect of success. How correct this strategy was is proved by the past twelve months. Thanks to the effectiveness of our submarines, which excited the justified admiration of the whole world, it has been

possible sorely to wound the British fleet. In addition, our submarine arm has busied itself since the beginning of the year in an entirely unexpected way, as a destroyer of commerce. Views may differ as to the final outcome in this field, but it is undeniable that a nation like Germany, whose commerce has been driven from the seas, but which can subsist without imports, has an extraordinary advantage over a country dependent almost entirely, like Britain, upon importations of food and raw materials across the water. The submarine danger unquestionably weighs like a nightmare upon the inhabitants of the sea-washed land. The future results of the wide extension, as we hope, of the fruitful activity of our submarines cannot be predicted, but the expectation is generally cherished in Germany that the submarine campaign will help to accelerate the demand for peace in England.

Every type of warship has fallen victim to German submarines—the battleships *Formidable*, *Triumph*, and *Majestic*, the armored cruisers *Hogue*, *Cressy*, and *Aboukir*, the Russian armored cruiser *Pallava*, the cruisers *Hawke* and *Pathfinder*, and the British destroyer *Recruit*, for example—and neither the express steamer nor the slow fishing boat is safe from our deadly torpedoes.

In addition, the aerial arm of the service has won many laurels. Zeppelins crossed the North Sea safely, even to London and back, and German aeroplanes participated in the destruction of the enemies' war and merchant ships. The question whether airships and aeroplanes could be used offensively at sea must, in the light of the achievements of our aircraft, be answered affirmatively.

German aircraft have been fought successfully against the dreaded submarines. A Russian submarine was destroyed in the Baltic by bombs from an aeroplane, and at least one British submarine met the same fate in the North Sea.

The general fear of submarines is responsible for the remarkable spectacle of the heavily armed and strongly ar-

mored battleships rarely venturing to leave sheltering harbors—ships which before the war were counted as decisive factors in sea power, but finding themselves condemned to inactive rôles. Clashes of heavy battleships, like those in distant waters, have borne out the old rule that superiority in numbers, artillery, and speed make up the decisive factor for victory.

The British were defeated off Coronel, Chile, because the *Monmouth* and *Good Hope* depended for the most part on 6-inch guns, while the German cruisers *Gneisenau* and *Scharnhorst* carried many 8.3-inch guns. The victory at the Falkland Islands was easy for the British battle cruisers *Invincible* and *Inflexible* and their consorts because they mounted 12-inch guns and also were much faster than the German ships.

In warship duels also weight and armament were decisive. The *Sydney*, armed with 6-inch guns, was thus able to destroy the *Emden*, with only 4.2-inch cannon.

The lessons which may be drawn from past events may be summed up briefly as follows:

Superiority of technical material plays, as in earlier naval battles, an important rôle, perhaps to a greater extent now than before. Given crews practically equal in skill, the side which is inferior in artillery and speed is at so heavy a disadvantage that victory is possible only under exceptionally favorable circumstances.

The submarine has proved itself a thoroughly dangerous weapon to which unsuspected possibilities must be conceded. All methods of defense hitherto employed have failed to fulfill their purpose in requisite manner.

Dirigibles and aeroplanes have not only demonstrated their value in scouting, but also have been engaged effectively upon the offensive.

The lessons learned even thus far will have a marked influence upon the construction of fleets, and I can understand why in the United States efforts are being made to take advantage of them.

Britain's Courage Undaunted

By Sir Edward Carson

British Attorney General

Sir Edward Carson, the British Attorney General, prepared for The Associated Press a signed statement to be published on Aug. 1, giving a broad outline of the first year of the war from the British standpoint, together with an expression of what he declared to be the unalterable purpose of the British Government and people to carry on the war to a successful conclusion. The statement appears below.

HOW long will the war last, and what will be the result? To such questions as these any British subject can give but one answer, and that is that the war will last until the cause of the Allies has been brought to a successful issue and Europe and the world have been relieved from the ideals involved in the aggression of Prussian domination. The world peace does not enter into our vocabulary at the present time. It is banished from our conversation as something immoral and impossible under existing circumstances. And yet we are the most peace-loving people in the world; a nation which throughout the globe, within its many dominions, has inculcated good government and social and industrial progress and the free exercise, in its widest sense, of civil and religious liberty.

Rightly or wrongly, we have in the past devoted our energies and our intelligence, not to preparations for war, but to that social progress which makes for the happiness and the contentment of the mass of our people. And this, no doubt, is the reason why other nations imagine that we, as a nation of shopkeepers, are too indolent and apathetic to fight for and maintain these priceless liberties won by the men who laid the foundation of our vast empire.

But they are entirely mistaken in forming any such estimate of the temperament or determination of our people. Great Britain hates war, and no nation enters more reluctantly upon its horrible and devastating operations; but at the same time no nation, when it is driven to war by the machinations of its foes who desire to filch from it or from its co-champions of liberty any

portion of their inherited freedom, is more resolved to see the matter through, at whatever cost, to a successful issue.

A year of war has transformed Great Britain. Of our navy I need hardly speak. It has upheld to the fullest extent the great traditions which fill the pages of history in the past, it has driven its enemies off the seas, it holds vast oceans free for almost the uninterrupted commerce of neutral powers, and it has preserved these highways for its own supplies of material and food almost without interruption. I do not minimize the peril of the submarines, which is in process of being dealt with through the careful and zealous watchfulness of our Admiralty, but, while the submarine has enabled the Germans to commit savage and inhuman atrocities contrary to the laws of civilization and against the settled rules of international law, it has done nothing to affect the vast commerce of our empire.

The German submarine attack has signally failed to hamper our military operations. Under the protection of our navy hundreds of thousands of men have been brought to the fighting area from the most distant parts of the empire. Troop ships are crossing daily to France, and not a single ship or a single soldier has been lost in the passage. The manner in which our troops have received their supplies is a source of satisfaction to us and admiration to our enemies.

At the commencement of the war we were not, and never did pretend to be, a military nation. An expeditionary force of 170,000 men and a small terri-

torial army of 260,000 men for defense against invasion was all we could boast of, but today Great Britain teems with military camps in which millions of men of the finest material are being trained and equipped to cope with every emergency.

No other nation in the world ever produced, or hoped to produce, a volunteer army of such proportions. Each day brings to the colors thousands of men who had never thought of military service before, and each day, as our enemy grows weaker, the infancy of our strength is growing into manhood, and with increasing virility and prowess. No doubt some people are foolish enough to be influenced by the misrepresentations which are a part of the equipment of our German enemies, who represent us as a decadent race. But they know little of the spirit of our people.

As the problem unfolds from day to day and the task before us expands in its herculean form, our spirit becomes more determined and our efforts and organization quietly shape themselves to meet the emergencies that are before us. That all this is being accomplished without dramatic demonstration and foolish boasting is not a sign of weakness, but of strength.

The splendid heroism of our Russian and French allies is not only an example which stimulates us, but it is an additional incentive to our national honor to carry on to an end the obligations we have undertaken. And if for the moment we are confronted with the impossibility of offensive action by our brave Russian allies, and are compelled to wage a costly and difficult war against the Turks in the Dardanelles, as well as against our enemies in Flanders, we cheerfully resolve to fit ourselves for the situation which confronts us.

It is, of course, true that our country has not been accustomed to organization and discipline, which leads unthinking men from time to time to imagine that there could be a different discipline in the coal fields or the workshops from that which prevails in the trenches; but

all that is a mere temporary difficulty, and it cannot impede the country, which has made up its mind to win if it has to spend the last man and its last dollar in the process.

The success of the recent war loan shows how anxious our people are to invest their money in the prosecution of the war. Not only is it the largest loan that ever has been floated, but it represents not merely the accumulation of capital of a few large banks, but the hard-earned savings of small investors in every part of the country. Although our shores are not invaded and we have not experienced the impelling necessities of a war waged in our own country, yet there is hardly a family in any village in the land that has not willingly sent its sons to fight our battles in foreign lands. While I see day by day more and more anxiety from every man to do his share, I can see no sign nor trace of wavering in any section of the community.

We have the right to say to neutrals that our cause is just; that the war has been forced upon us, and that we are making and are going to make every sacrifice that makes a nation great to bring our cause to a successful conclusion. We have a right, I think, to ask neutrals to examine their own consciences as to whether they have done everything that neutrals ought to do or can do in insisting that the laws of humanity and the doctrines of international law, which have been so carefully fostered in times of peace, are carried out. Neutrals are the executive power to compel observance of the principles of international law, and, if they fail to do so, the result must be disastrous to the world at large, in the present and in the future, and give free play to a savagery and barbarism which is none the less revolting because it carries out its methods by the aid of the discoveries of scientific research and progress.

But, however that may be, our courage is undaunted. It grows into exaltation by reason of the difficulties that surround us, and we will go on to the end without fear or trembling and in the certain inspiration of a victory which will restore to the world that peace which can

alone bring happiness and contentment to the mass of its citizens.

EDWARD CARSON.

By PRIME MINISTER ASQUITH.

The Prime Minister of Great Britain, the Right Hon. Herbert H. Asquith, has made the following authorized statement:

I have been asked to send a message to the United States of America at the end of the first year of the war. The reasons why we are fighting are known in America. The world has judged, and will judge, not our words, but our actions. The question today is not of our hopes or our calculations, but our duties.

Our duty, which we shall fulfill, is to continue to the end in the course which we have chosen and "to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace."

By SIR EDWARD GREY.

Sir Edward Grey, the British Secretary for Foreign Affairs, made this authorized statement:

I have been asked to send a message to the United States of America at the end of the first year of the war.

The reasons which led Great Britain to declare war and the ideals for which she is fighting have been frequently set forth. They are fully understood in America. I do not feel, therefore, there is any need to repeat them now. I am quite contented to leave the rights and wrongs of the causes and conduct of the war to the judgment of the American people.

The United Kingdom, and the entire empire, together with their gallant allies, have never been more determined than they are today to prosecute this war to a successful conclusion, which will result in honorable and enduring peace based on liberty and not burdensome militarism.

August 4, 1915

[From the Westminster Gazette.]

By EILY ESMONDE.

Twelve months ago!—
O God!—What tongue
Could have foretold
The horror and the agony of woe
That those twelve months should hold
For hearts as yet unstrung.

And now—
Pray we—for strength
Our honor still
To keep through all the anguished hours
Of unknown length,
That yet may bring—we know not—good or ill—
That Hope be ours
Though pain-filled day, and sorrow-stricken night
Threaten beyond—
That Resolution may fulfill
In valiant strife, what Peace did will—
That Right be Right,
Our Word our Bond,
Whate'er the pain,
The loss. The gain—
God! witness Thou.

The War to Date, From a British Standpoint

By Sir Gilbert Parker

The article printed below was sent from England by Sir Gilbert Parker in response to a series of questions cabled to him on the occasion of the first anniversary of the outbreak of the war in Europe. Readers of THE NEW YORK TIMES CURRENT HISTORY will find the article one of the most striking and illuminating contributions to the literature of the great conflict.

YOU ask me to look back over the first year of the great war and tell you what I think about it in relation to several vital factors of England's life.

In one sense, Americans can judge as well as I what has been done; but it is worth saying that, when the unpreparedness of Great Britain and her overseas dominions for a great land war is remembered, the accomplishment is immense.

The British Army was not more than 250,000, excluding the reserves. There are now in training or in the field 350,000 troops of the overseas dominions alone, while this country, on estimate, has at least 2,775,000 men in the field or in training.

We are producing probably 350 times as much ammunition per month as we produced in September last, and we have supplied our allies also with munitions of war.

The achievement of our armies and of the Allies, as a whole, has been enormous.

Germany had prepared for forty years for a great European war, in which she would make herself the supreme power of the world, dispossessing Great Britain on land and sea and making it impossible for any other nation, however powerful, to challenge or to revolt against her supremacy.

She had laid up great stores of munitions, she had organized for a vast production when war should begin; she had, with mathematical precision, meticulously, and with devoted industry made her whole industrial, commercial, and educational life conform to a military organization for national and imperial purposes.

Her object was not the object of nations with civil, humanitarian, and social

ideals. Power, not the amelioration of human life or the development of individual independence and character, was her object and her goal.

Therefore, when the war broke out, she had such a military machine as the world had never seen. And it must not be forgotten that Austria, which is so constantly left out of the calculations of the world in thinking about this war, had also made huge military preparations, as was shown by the great guns she brought into the field in the very early stages of the war.

To talk of Germany fighting the world is nonsense. Germany and Austria, two great central empires of Europe, with 117,000,000 of people, are fighting the Allies. In the field of war they were able at the start to put nearly twice as many equipped men into the field as the Allies.

That they did not defeat the Allies is a marvel.

It is also splendid evidence of the capacity of the Allies and of Great Britain's power; for, though Great Britain's sector of the field of battle has been small, her contributions in other directions have been prodigious, all things considered.

She has had troops fighting in France, Belgium, the Dardanelles, Egypt, British East Africa, Southwest Africa, the Cameroons, and the Persian Gulf.

Her navy has done what was expected of it. It has cleared the seas of German commerce and German ships of war. It has taken some of Germany's island possessions in the South Seas. It has bottled up the German fleet behind its mine fields, rendering it powerless, and it is now waiting patiently for that navy to come out and give battle.

In money and in munitions, and by her

sea power enabling the Allies to trade freely, she has played a great part in this conflict, and presently the part will be gigantic, for she will have an army of 3,000,000 equipped, backed by a preponderating navy.

By next Winter her output of shells will give her superiority in that field, and she will be able to supply Russia with much that she needs. It has not been German bravery which has kept Russia back, which has dispossessed Russia of ground which she won by valor, but shells and guns, which the Germans had in abundance.

Great Britain asleep! The American Nation may be assured, in spite of all carping and pessimistic statements, that Great Britain and her people are awake, and no democracy ever produced a voluntary army approximating three millions in the world's history, not even your United States.

You resorted to compulsory service for your great civil war. It may be that we shall not get through this war without compulsory service, but the response to the call of the Government for men has vastly exceeded what was thought possible.

In spite of her critics, whose object no doubt was so to alarm the nation that we should secure the utmost contribution of her strength, it is certain that there is not a street in the most secluded town or village of this kingdom which has not felt the call and contributed, if not to its utmost, then sufficient to show that the utmost will be forthcoming.

We are a slow people, but without boasting it may be said that we are sure; and that the citizens of this empire do not love their land and are concerned for its future less than the Germans are for Germany is a statement which time and fact are belying.

You ask me how, in this limited monarchy, the war has affected the democracy.

First let me say that the democracy governs itself; though it has a King as the permanent and stable element in the Constitution, representing the principles and traditions of that Constitution through their long course of development,

by being also the head of his people; the chief of his clan, as it were.

Well, wealth and peace are potent factors in every country toward separating people into classes. Even the United States has not escaped that. Social distinctions quite as imperious as in this country exist there, though they are not so extensive, not so carefully graded.

A great war like this shakes people of all classes and sections together to do the work demanded by the vital emergency.

So it is that a labor leader like Will Crooks, whose opinions have been repeated by many of his colleagues, says that the officer-peer and the artisan-private have shown the same valor, the same sense of duty; that the man higher up, as he is called in America, has, with an unmatched gallantry, risked and lost his life, hand in hand with the man on the lower levels.

You ask me if I think that Kitchener's army is democratic in a wide sense.

Let me say this: that what is called "Kitchener's army" is the most democratic, and it is probably the best, army that ever took the field since the armies of the civil war of the United States won their reputation.

In it are a very high proportion of elementary school teachers as non-commissioned officers, who are trained to organize and direct, who are typical of the bridging of the gulf between classes by the bond of education.

But not only Kitchener's new battalions are democratized. The professional army was always a mere handful, and to bring up the required battalions to war strength, to fill the gaps, a stream of reserve officers and men was called up—"city" men, lawyers, university lecturers, industrial workers, policemen, street car drivers, &c. These took their place in the framework at once.

Hence, the whole of the British armies in this conflict are like the American armies in the civil war.

They possess the intelligence, method, perseverance, the devoted courage of the Northerners, and the natural aptitude, adaptability, and improvising power of the Southerners.

In this war officers and men are

brought into much closer association than in any previous wars, since it has been a trench war, and, figuratively speaking, they sleep under the same blanket and eat out of the same dish.

In the close and confined area of the trenches officer and man are shoulder to shoulder, with practically no distinction in dress, while all are practically doing the same thing. The companionship of danger and purpose and endurance was never better manifested.

How many hundreds of stories have we heard and letters have we read from privates, telling how splendid, self-sacrificing, tirelessly considerate for their comfort, and utterly regardless of danger, their officers were; and how many hundreds of letters and how many speeches of officers have we read in which they tell of the magnificent courage, selflessness, cheerfulness and friendship of the private.

Their acts of heroism for each other have produced a great camaraderie. What began in duty has ended in affection.

"He was terrible bad hurt," said a private of his officer in a letter which I saw a day or two ago—"he was hurt so bad he had to groan, and he kept apologizing to us, saying he wished he could help it.

"He was true blue he was, and the hurt he had would ha' made any man squeal.

"Well, we just held 'is hands and done what we could, and one of my pals what was hurt too, he crawled over and he kissed the officer on the cheek, and they was both dead in half an hour. They was both good pals."

Innumerable stories like that have come to me, and I have in my possession letters now, of men no longer living, telling always of the great deeds done by others, and as time has gone on one has learned from others what they themselves had done.

I am not cracking up the bravery of the British officer or soldier, I am only saying that there never was a war in which officer and man, Duke and ditcher, Privy Councilor and miner have so preserved discipline, and yet their personal

sympathy, together with the men-to-men attitude.

This is easily understood in a country like the United States, and in all the overseas dominions, for the armies of these new lands must have these characteristics; but it was not generally supposed that, in a nation with a hereditary aristocracy, and apparently dependent classes far below, there would be this democratic feeling and action.

I frankly say that I think this war has democratized the British Army enormously, for in the face of vast issues and prolonged fighting, which tests men to the utmost, the private has lifted himself far above his rank in life by the ennobling feeling of doing a great duty, which yet he calls "his little bit."

I have seen this in my own household. A footman of mine, with not much apparent personality or sensibility—as how can a footman have much personality in the somewhat rigid work of a household, with its set and specific duties, with even its below-stairs class distinction?—left me to enlist.

He was gone several months in training. I saw him just before he started for the front. He was not the same man that had been in my service. There was modest self-possession; there was determination; there was the dignity of purpose in his bearing when he said to me:

"I'm keen to get out, Sir, I think I'm fit for it now, and I'll try and get one back at them Germans that aren't content to fight, but have to murder, too."

I had a feeling that he would give a good account of himself. I have had several letters from him; but one, received after he had had his baptism of fire, contains a few sentences which describe a revolution taking place, a development increasing with lightning rapidity in the men on the lower levels in this country; while the man on the higher levels of birth, position, and money has stepped down to the level road, where he and Tommy Atkins are one in temper and in character for the national welfare.

Here are the sentences from my footman-friend's letter:

We got as far as where the communication

trench began when the Germans caught us, and the shrapnel they put into us was something terrible.

"I'm not afraid to say that the first half hour of it I was nearly frightened to death. Still, I never lost my head, and my chums were getting knocked over all around me.

We rushed to a hedge and stayed under it for nearly three hours with the shells ripping up the earth and tearing down trees wholesale. It was not a bang, bang affair; it was one continuous roar of splintering.

Our next move was up the trench leading to the firing line. It took us just upon two hours, and the sight I saw there I shall never forget as long as I live. The trench was nearly filled with water, and the wounded men, or rather what had been men, now wrecks of flesh and bone, were crawling through this stuff.

Not till I saw them did I realize how much I wanted to get my bayonet into the body of a German. Perhaps that will come soon. Then I hope the good God will give me courage and strength enough to take a good revenge.

We left the trench soon after midnight. As we were coming along the road I stayed a few seconds with a few more of the Sixtieth at a house where the trees had been blown across the road, and just as we got to the house a German flare went up, and before we had time to take two more steps three Jack Johnsons were tearing the place down about our ears.

I forgot to say that the Germans shelled us with gas shells, so we had to fight with respirators and smoke helmets on. I think you will agree with me when I say that we had a good baptism.

Well, I think it will be agreed that this is the letter of a young man who has found himself.

The other day I watched a regiment of Kitchener's army at work in Norfolk. The physique of the men was remarkable, they were stalwart, bronzed, healthy, hearty, happy. Willingness, esprit, were everywhere; but the thing that got deep into my mind was the quiet confidence and understanding between the officers and the men.

You would see an officer speaking to a lance corporal as though to a friend, confidentially, as he stood with his company; and the lance corporal replied with easy naturalness. There was no gap of formality between them. When their talk was finished—a talk upon work to be done or work done, something connected with the company—there was no lack of respect. Just as the soldier of

old days would have done under the older system, the lance corporal touched his cap.

Discipline was there, but something which made discipline a thing to have joy in, for it was a happiness in common effort for the honor of the regiment. All were playing the game of the Eleven.

One of the most remarkable aspects of this war in the field and in training for the field is the wonderful happiness of the men. They may be fatigued and worn, but they are never downcast. Nothing has been too good for them as to food and necessities, and even luxuries.

The love of the nation has been spent on them, but it has not been squandered. In the rough earthquake of war we have been shaken together. Horrible as it all is—the bloodshed, the treasure poured out, the loss in life and material—still we can truthfully say that the nation has profited by its sacrifice, its effort, and its bereavement. National character has been made; inherent goodness has become magnificent merit.

In Parliament some one once said contemptuously of socialism, "When that time comes we shall all be feeding out of the same municipal trough." Well, we are not doing that, but we are all working in the same national field.

There are some slackers—that has always been the case. There are some cowards, but they will not be able to escape the passion of loyalty which is spreading and forever spreading; which is tenfold greater than it was on the 4th of August, 1914.

Yes, your question as to whether drink has prevented Great Britain from rising to the height of her necessity during the year of war should be answered at this point.

I have seen in some American papers most cruel libels upon the British workingman. I have seen London likened to Babylon or Byzantium. I have seen it stated in a Philadelphia paper that 90 per cent. of the people in this country are apathetic, and that this is all due to degeneracy, self-indulgence, and drink.

This is a charge of a ghastly nature; and if it were true, then the fate of Sodom and Gomorrah would be too

good for Great Britain and this empire. England has had great opportunities and vast responsibilities, and her people have done masterly and prodigious things, as her history shows.

She has peopled overseas dominions; she has preserved, with a handful of men, the loyalty of the vast Indian empire; she has a commerce throughout the world greater than that of any other nation; her shipping represents more than half of the world's shipping; and if her people were so degenerate as to fail the State in its hour of need and peril, then indeed should all the world turn their backs upon her.

I make this challenge, however: If half a dozen American journalists of repute and capacity will come to this country and will go into any city, town, or village in England, or come to this vast metropolis, and will take any street in any one of these villages, towns, or in any borough of London, I declare that he will find, not 90 per cent. apathetic, but 90 per cent. representing homes from which some person is gone to fight, to be trained to fight, is employed in the manufacture of munitions of war, or has relatives fighting, preparing to fight, or occupied in the manufacture of munitions of war, or some other work which is essentially war work.

I know of what I speak. It has been tried. An American journalist has gone from house to house in one of the worst quarters of London, and the truth of my statement has been sustained. I make this challenge; I hope it will be accepted; I have no doubt of the result.

Drink there is and has always been in this country, and too much drink. Congestion, with poverty and crowded homes, of great cities such as New York, Chicago, St. Louis, Philadelphia, Boston, or London, Paris, or Rome, and many others one knows, is the cause of excess.

There was a sudden, passionate outburst on the part of an English Minister to the effect that it was drink which prevented us from winning the war, through irregular work in the factories where munitions were made.

That was taken with great seriousness in this country; it was taken with infinite

nitely greater seriousness in countries like the United States.

The same Minister who made that statement now declares that the lack of munitions was due to lack of organization months ago. Both things are in part true, but only in part.

Undoubtedly in the rush and excitement, in the demand for extra output, a percentage of the workmen who drink and who ordinarily drink too much plunged into greater self-indulgence, and to some extent helped to disorganize the mass.

But again, if any one who knows this country will come here now and go from town to town, village to village, and city to city, will make inquiry at public houses, will go to the usual saloon resorts, he will find that, though wages are higher, though there is more employment than there has been for many years, there is less drink, not more.

We have no right to expect the sympathy of the United States and of other neutral countries if England is more drunken now than she was; and we have a right to ask that, when these charges are made against her, investigation should also be made.

The responsibility of the people of this country is great, and American journalistic enterprise would only be doing its duty if it made the investigation which I suggest, since this great war is an international question, and the judgment of neutral nations must affect the end of it directly and indirectly.

The real result of the war has been, not to increase general depravity, but, through the greater inflow of money, to increase the depravity of those already depraved. There has been a great drain from industry into the army; certain industries have enormously increased their demand for labor; therefore the premium on the labor of the disreputable 10 per cent. of the drinking laboring classes has been vastly increased.

The misdoings of the 10 per cent. set up a certain amount of sympathetic demoralization and interfere materially with sober workmen in jobs that require co-operation, as, for instance, the riveters in shipbuilding.

This unsatisfactory minority will now

be dealt with under powers granted by the Government, to the great satisfaction of labor as a whole, which repudiates the acts of the inevitable minority of degraded workers.

You ask me, "How has the war affected the suffrage movement and the suffrage disorders which were so widespread in this country over a year ago?"

Well, in the first place, immediately after the declaration of war, the Women's Social and Political Union called a meeting and suspended the publication of their organ, *The Suffragette*, and mobilized all their members for national work: that is, nursing, production of clothing, relief work, &c.

The leaders of the suffragette movement soon saw that the individual devotion of its members was not enough, so they resolved to devote their vast organization, as an organization, to national purposes. Officially they organized recruiting meetings; they made a reissue of *The Suffragette* as a war paper, which is doing good work in combating the stupid criticism of a small minority with cosmopolitan sympathies, who are full of the love of God and all their fellow creatures, and who would throw bouquets to murderers, because human sympathy is such a divine thing!

It is notable that the leaders of the suffragette movement desire a thorough settlement, that they want, not alone peace with honor, but peace of such a nature as shall see the world secured against a barbarous and aggressive militarism.

Miss Annie Kenney was asked by me whether the Social and Political Union approved of The Hague Peace Conference of Women.

The reply was: "No. We think the evolution of the woman movement in the last generation has produced two types—the success and the failure.

"The personnel of the Peace Conference represented the failure. We sent to The Hague one of our members to protest, and we saw that the conference was merely playing into Germany's hands. Every woman who attended that conference will one day bitterly repent it."

Miss Kenney was asked whether suffragette activity in the national cause would ultimately affect the question of the vote.

The reply was that the vote question was not in their minds, that the vote will come of itself; that if they knew for certain that it would be denied for an indefinite period they should still work every bit as strenuously as they were working now; that the greater cause comes before the less for all Britishers—the cause of liberty and democracy.

She said that if the Allies win the woman's cause will be at most retarded, but that if Prussianism wins the whole cause of freedom would be immeasurably weakened and set back, that women's suffrage would not merely be retarded, but removed from the sphere of possibility altogether. And Miss Kenney added:

"No. Our union is too sensible of the danger to tolerate any compromise with Prussianism. We have never been believers in compromise with injustice."

She was finally asked how she would sum up the present attitude of the suffragettes. The answer was very fine; and I, who have been opposed to the granting of the vote to women, frankly say that it is an utterance deserving of perpetual remembrance. This is what she said:

"Duties come before rights. We have dared to demand; we have also the courage to give to the uttermost."

That is what this war has done. It has made men and women who differ fundamentally in many things, who have opposed each other politically, meet with a common patriotism on the ground of deeper fundamentals still, on the ground of issues that affect the whole of civilization, and not alone the social and political history of one country.

You have not asked me the question to which I am now going to reply, but I am going to ask it of myself. It is this:

"What has been the part played by the United States in this year of war? From the British standpoint, has she helped or retarded us?"

The account which we render of ourselves brings no blush to our cheeks, though we differ and criticise and gibe



PRINCE LEOPOLD OF BAVARIA

Who Led His Victorious Army Into Warsaw. He is Brother of King
Ludwig III. of Bavaria
(Photo copyright by Underwood & Underwood)



GRAND DUCHESS OLGA
Eldest Daughter of the Czar of Russia. She is Nearly 21 Years Old

and challenge each other, as Britishers have always done, as Americans did in the time of their civil war, when Lincoln's heart was almost broken by opposition from his political foes, and by savage criticism of his friends. At this time we are all in a state not perfectly normal.

We are living, as it were, at the top of our being, and we are inclined to exaggerate, to be extravagant in denunciation or in criticism when things do not go as we think they ought to do, but go as they always do in war, with staggering ups and downs.

There are those among us who have thought that the United States, as a vast democracy inspired by high national ideals, and as the enemy of all reactionary and tyrannical elements, might have done more to help us in our fight for civilization, might indeed have entered the war with us.

But let me say—and in this I believe I speak for the great majority of British people—that we have not had the least desire to invoke the armed assistance of the United States, or to influence her in the slightest in this matter.

The United States has performed immense service to the Allies by resisting all attempts to wean or force her from her neutrality by prohibiting the export of munitions of war. Her perfect propriety and adherence to the spirit of true neutrality have resisted German pressure.

Secondly, the services she has performed to civilization by organizing relief for Belgium have been a service to humanity, and therefore a service to the Allies, who are fighting to restore to Belgium her usurped dominion.

Thirdly, the United States has rendered immense services to this country by caring for the interests of British subjects abroad, and, above all, by making the lot of British prisoners of war easier. Some of the worst cruelties and inhuman oppressions have been removed by her intervention.

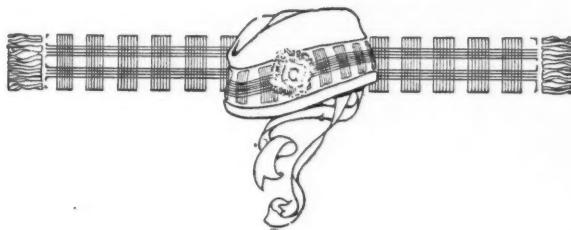
Lastly, her sympathy, expressed in a thousand ways, and not the least by fair consideration of the action taken by Great Britain in the blockade and other matters, has eased the minds of millions of King George's subjects. Lack of sympathy might easily have misinterpreted the acts of our Government.

I wish Americans would believe that in this country there has been since this war began a larger and truer understanding of the American people. For my own part I have known the United States intimately for many years, have had faith in her national purposes and confidence in her diplomatic integrity, and, from reading her history, a realization of her sense of justice.

And in this war of ideals, fundamentally different, I believe the people of both nations have come to a sense of kinship and of mutual admiration, not diminished by the possible mistakes which may have been made by Great Britain largely due to improvised organization, or in the United States by her rigid neutrality, which may not have seemed to chime with her sympathy.

Her diplomacy has been unimpeachable, and we in Great Britain are grateful for an understanding which is as material a support as an army in the field.

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United France

By Raymond Poincaré, President of the French Republic

The first meeting of the French Chamber of Deputies after the anniversary of the beginning of the war, and following the establishment of the union of all political parties in France, to endure so long as the war shall last, was held on Aug. 5, 1915. A message from President Poincaré was read in the Chamber by Premier Viviani, and in the Senate by Aristide Briand, Minister of Justice. It was addressed to the French Parliament and reviewed the first year of the war. The text of the message follows:

YOU will find it natural that after a year of war the President of the Republic has the honor to associate himself with the Government and the two houses of the Legislature to render homage, admiration, and gratitude to the nation and the army.

When a year ago I recommended to the country this sacred union, which was then and still remains one of the conditions of victory, I had no doubt but that my appeal would be immediately heard. Our enemies, who always have misunderstood France, alone believed that we would offer an evidence of our dissensions to their brutal aggression.

At the precise hour when they audaciously asserted that Paris was a prey to upheaval the capital of the republic assumed that grave and serene physiognomy in which could be read its cold resolution. From the largest cities to the smallest villages there passed a great current of national fraternity which, among the people as well as in Parliament, wiped out even the memory of civil quarrels. The whole people turned a united face to the enemy.

For a year this unity of will has not belied my belief that nothing will weaken it. If Germany is counting on the possibility of dividing France at the present time, she is deceived today as she was a year ago. Time will not weaken the ties binding the great French family. United France is great and strong, and because she is united she is confident and calm. Every day in the smallest communities there is spontaneous collaboration between the old people, the women and the children, which makes sure the continuance of the normal life of these villages in its regular course. Fields are sowed and cultivated and crops

harvested, and this organization of labor is a material factor to the keeping alive of patience and firmness in the soul of the people.

Every day Frenchmen of all parties and all religions bring their offerings to the Treasury, and hands which bear noble marks of daily labor push over the counters of the banks gold pieces which they have painfully saved up.

Everywhere the country gives a sublime example of common thought and resolution.

A generous emulation inspired all lines of French activity to come to the aid of the national defense, and this aid is given utterly without selfishness. The country should encourage not only harmony among political parties, but also private co-operation and good-will.

Individual energies, recognizing how to submit themselves to discipline, constitute a great force in the nation. In war time such energies never are too numerous or too powerful, nor is there ever a greater need to co-ordinate national action to produce a single effect.

The merits of a people are luminously reflected in the army. The army, composed of the substance of the nation, immediately understood the grandeur of its rôle. It knows it is fighting for the safety of the race and the traditions and liberties of the country. It knows that on the victory of France and the Allies rests the future of civilization and humanity.

Into the hearts of the most modest of our soldiers and marines has come a high appreciation of this great historical duty. Each man is completely devoted to his mother country, and those who fall die without fear, since by their death France lives and will live forever.

In the error of its arrogance, Germany

has represented France as light, impressionable, unstable and incapable of perseverance and tenacity. The people and the army of France will continue to controvert this calumnious judgment by their calm course. They will not let themselves be troubled by that false news, which has its effect only on impressionable souls; by noisy manifestos for peace by our enemies, or by the perfidious and suspicious insinuations whispered by the agents of the enemy in the ears of neutrals—cowardly counsels aimed at future efforts at demoralization. No one in France is disturbed.

The only peace which the republic can accept is that which guarantees the security of Europe and which will permit us to breathe and to live and to work to reconstruct our dismembered country and repair our ruins, a peace which will effectively protect us against any offensive return of the Germanic ambitions.

The present generations are accountable for France to posterity. They will not permit the profanation of the trust which their ancestors confided to their charge. France is determined to conquer; she will conquer.

M. DESCHANEL'S SPEECH.

Paul Deschanel, President of the Chamber, opened the session with a speech, which was apparently intended to follow the example of the address of M. Rodzianko, President of the Russian Duma, at the recent opening of that legislative body, and as a reply to the anniversary manifesto of the German Emperor. To this Premier Viviani gave response in the name of the Government. M. Deschanel said a year had passed since the enemy of France, even before declaring war, had violated French territory. He added:

This year has been so full of a glory so pure that it will forever illumine the human race. It has been a year in which France, the France of Joan of Arc and Valmy, has risen, if possible, to even greater heights.

Be the war of short or long duration, France accepts it. The country is summoning its genius and changing its methods. Each French soldier before the enemy repeats the words of Joan of Arc, "You can enchain me, but you cannot enchain the fortunes of France."

"France Is Fit"

By Count Adrien L. de Montebello

A year of war finds "France fit to continue the struggle to the end and confident of the outcome," says Count Adrien Lannes de Montebello in a review of the first twelve months of hostilities given to The Associated Press on July 31. Count de Montebello, a recognized authority on military affairs, was one of the strongest advocates of the three-year military service law and its co-author with the ex-Premier, Louis Barthou. He was formerly Deputy from Rheims and Vice President of the Committee on Military Affairs of the Chamber of Deputies. His grandfather was Marshal Lannes, at whose death on the battlefield of Essling Napoleon is said to have

wept. Count de Montebello's review follows:

FRANCE was not expecting war, and her preparations therefore were less complete than those of her adversaries, who, knowing their intentions, had accumulated an immense supply of fighting material and disposed of their troops in such a manner as to strike the most powerful blow of which they were capable.

Germany threw against Belgium and France fifty-two army corps, or almost her entire military force as mobilized in August. Under the impact of the German advance the French armies, with their British allies, suffered initial re-

verses and great losses, especially in the battle of Charleroi. While the French armies were in retreat a national Ministry was formed, and the civil population of France organized for war. The French and British armies stood on the line of the Marne from a point near Paris to the eastern frontier of France. They received the shock of more than 1,200,000 German troops, and defeated them with somewhat inferior forces. The Germans were outlaid and outfought in a vast general action over a line of more than 120 miles.

The French troops were too exhausted by their fifteen days of marching and fighting to make their victory decisive. The Germans checked their retreat upon the line of the Aisne, and had sufficient time to dig in. The battle of the Aisne developed by the Germans endeavoring to turn our left and by the simultaneous French effort to turn the German right. This contest resulted in a race for the sea in the obstinate two months' battle along the Yser in October and November. The Germans again failed, and finally gave up that part of their offensive, on account of their terrific losses.

Simultaneous with the battle of the Marne, though forming no part of the battle front of what has been called the battle of the Marne, were the operations in the Argonne, the Woevre, and the Grand Couronne de Nancy. The army of the German Crown Prince, marching on Verdun, and the army of Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria, marching on Nancy, both were defeated in some of the bloodiest engagements of the entire war.

The ultimate result of these defeats was the liberation of that part of the ancient Province of Lorraine left to France after 1870 from the occupation of the German Army. The German forces had penetrated fifteen or eighteen miles. They were not only driven out before the 1st of November, but since then the French have invaded Upper Alsace, of which they now hold a considerable part. This country, taken from France in the

war of 1870-71, has been reorganized and is under control of a civil government which restored the school and judicial systems of France.

From the battle of Charleroi to the end of the first year of the war the Germans achieved no successes on the western battle front save the slight advance at Soissons during the floods of the River Aisne and the advance at Ypres, partially lost afterward, at the time of the first attack with the assistance of asphyxiating gas.

The successes of the Allies since the battle of the Marne are in the recapture of Thann, Steinbach, Hartsmans-Weilerkopf, Metzeral, La Fontenelle, together with considerable territory in the Alsatian Vosges; the capture of an entire German position in the Forest of Le Prêtre, along the wedge the Germans are still holding in the French lines at St. Mihiel; an advance of a mile along a front of ten miles at Beausejour, in the Champagne country; the capture of Neuve Chapelle by the British, the capture of Notre Dame de Lorette, Carency, and Neuville St. Vaast, and an advance of two or three miles along a front about seven miles north from Arras by the French, and the clearing of the left bank of the Yser of the enemy by the Belgian Army.

Never since the war began has the French Army been so fit to continue it to a triumphant conclusion as today. We have not only carried on the war with success during the year, but we have accumulated immense reserves of every necessity for continuing the war until it has been won. Our reserve troops in depots and under training are relatively greater than those of the Germans. The army is absolutely confident. The people behind the army, to a man, are equally so.

The French people, through no fault of theirs, have suffered and are suffering today, but they are equal to every hardship, every effort necessary to drive the war to a final victorious conclusion.

Prospect of Russia's Second Year of War

By a Russian Military Expert

"I hereby solemnly declare that we will not conclude peace until the last enemy soldier has left our land."

These words of Emperor Nicholas of Russia, uttered at the Winter Palace on Aug. 1, 1914, were reproduced in the press of Petrograd on the anniversary of the war. A message in the *Bourse Gazette* on July 31, 1915, printed in all the languages of Russia's allies, says:

FOR a year past the enemy has been threatening the freedom of the world. We deeply appreciate the self-sacrificing aid of the Allies in exerting a combined pressure on him on all sides.

A firm confidence in victory in a community of worldwide interests and in the final triumph of right fires the spirit of the nation. It has been our guiding star throughout this year of bloodshed. It will serve us in the coming months, maybe years, of this terrible struggle.

Russia greets her allies—France, Great Britain, Belgium, Serbia, Montenegro, Japan, and Italy. All hail to their heroic loyalty and firm determination to stand by her to the end; till light dispels the gloom.

From a person who, although not connected officially with the War Department, is in close touch with the Government officials and is well acquainted with the military situation and the Russian state of feeling, The Associated Press has obtained the following review of the first year of the war:

The end of the first year of the war finds Russia's potential fighting ability undiminished. Her armies are intact, her resources virtually untouched; and the determination of her people, the morale of her troops have only been deepened with the growing realization of the enemy's strength.

This determination is expressed most forcibly in the mobilization of vast industrial resources for the production of war munitions. These efforts are rap-

idly lessening the disparity of the combatants in guns and ammunition. Russia does not look for a speedy termination of the struggle, but feels confident of her power to exhaust the enemy.

The campaign on the eastern front must be viewed in relation to the enormous extent of territory over which battles have been waged, from the Baltic to Bukowina. The far-flung advances and retreats here have had no more significance relatively than gains and losses of a thousand yards on the western front. To interpret Russia's temporary loss of territory as German success is to ignore Russia's rôle to engage as great a part of the enemy's forces as possible, to relieve pressure on her allies. Russia's refusal to accept battle in disadvantageous conditions, even though she must temporarily abandon territory, has kept her armies and defensive lines unbroken.

It is the assertion of Russian authorities that every German advance has cost Germany more men, both relatively and actually, than it cost Russia. They regard Germany as now committed definitely to a campaign which is carrying the German armies further and further from their bases; and to abandon this campaign would be disastrous defeat for her. Moreover, it is maintained that not even the territorial ambitions of Germany have been realized, since the German objectives on this front have not been fully attained.

The advance of the Austrians into Southern Russia in the early stage of the war met with full defeat. It was followed by Austria's loss of Galicia. General Ivanoff, at the head of the southern Russian armies, carried on one of the most brilliant offensive campaigns of the war. The present stage may possibly be regarded as an uncompleted repetition of this earlier movement.

Furthermore, the repeated German drives at Warsaw from the west have cost the enemy tremendous losses. It

was only after six weeks of the most intense fighting in the Bzura region due west of Warsaw last Winter that the Germans recognized the futility of attempting to break the Russian front by direct frontal movements. On the other hand, by exacting a heavy toll of lives in rearguard actions during the carefully ordered retreats and by keeping her own army intact, Russia successfully performed her appointed task.

The East Prussian aggressive, which manifested itself periodically, and latterly the Baltic campaign, never have been regarded otherwise than as diversions. A parallel to these movements is found in the Bukowina operations, in their relation to the general Galician campaign. Their chief importance has been to draw men from other fronts, where more serious fighting has been in progress.

While it is understood the fate of the Turkish provinces on the Caucasian front will be determined by the general course of the war, this should not minimize the

genuine military successes Russia has achieved in that distant field. Russia did not desire to expend her strength in Asiatic Turkey, but when opposed by the threatening Turkish advance in December she exerted her power, flung back the Turkish army at Sari Kamish, and began a series of movements which carried the Russian arms to Van and the approaches to Bitlis and Mush, in Turkish Armenia.

BY THE RUSSIAN MINISTER OF WAR.

This statement was prepared by M. Polivanoff, the Russian Minister of War:

My opinion, in a few words, after one year's duration of this war, unprecedented in the world's annals, is as follows:

The enemy is strong and cruel, and that is the very reason why Russia and her heroic allies must continue the war—should it last for several years—until the enemy is completely crushed.

ALEXEI ANDREIEVITCH POLIVANOFF, Minister of War.

First Year's Slain and Wounded

German and British Estimates of Aggregate Casualties

In a London Cable Dispatch to The New York Times, dated July 31, the following estimates appeared:

OVER two and a half million of lives cut short and some five million men wounded, a certain proportion of the latter maimed and partially incapacitated for useful purposes—this is one result of one year of the world war, according to a statistician who has gone to the sources available for information.

Great Britain's casualties, announced by Premier Asquith in Parliament, amount to a third of a million, including killed, wounded, and missing.

Neither Germany, France, nor Russia makes any comprehensive statement of the kind, but it is obvious that the losses of all three are proportionately much heavier than England's.

Estimates published in the English papers derived from indications given in the Prussian official lists of casualties carry the German losses to a total of 3,500,000. This figure largely exceeds the computations made by the German authorities, but even the latter, who may be assumed to desire to put the best aspect possible on the war's cost in the matter of life and limb, admit that Germany up to the end of June had 482,000 men killed and 852,000 wounded.

In regard to prisoners, the Germans admitted a loss of 233,000 up to the end of last month, altogether a grand total of 1,567,000 killed, wounded, and missing.

The German claims as to the number of the enemy disposed of are surprisingly high. Mr. Asquith's figures of 330,000 up to a late date in July were

exceeded, according to German calculations, before the end of June, at which period, according to Teutonic computations, Great Britain had lost 116,000 killed, 229,000 wounded, and 83,000 prisoners, a total of 428,000.

When there is such a discrepancy between the German claims and the British Governmental statements as to British losses the possibly natural inference is that the German claims in respect to other hostile nations, such as France and Russia, which publish no figures to serve as a corrective, are likely to be greatly exaggerated. Consequently the following figures are given for what they are worth, stress being laid on the fact that they are derived from a usually well-informed source:

	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Total
France	400,000	700,000	300,000	1,400,000
Russia	733,000	1,982,000	770,000	3,485,000
Austria	341,000	771,000	183,000	1,295,000
Belgium	47,000	160,000	40,000	247,000
Serbia	64,000	112,600	50,000	226,600
Turkey	45,000	90,000	46,000	181,000
Japan	300	910	1,210

It is interesting to compare these figures, which are based on German calculations, with figures collected by Beach Thomas, a correspondent of The Daily Mail in Northern France. Mr. Thomas says his lists have been compiled on the Continent from the best available figures and checked and counterchecked in every way from both public and private information.

Extreme as the figures sound, the evi-

dence given for the Turkish losses, which are the most surprising, is at least plausible. If the total population of, say, Canada and Australia or London and Manchester were wiped out, the loss would have been smaller than the sum of the men recorded as casualties in this war.

Following are the figures, quoted for what they are worth:

	Killed.	Wounded.	Prisoners.	Total.
Germans...	490,000	1,636,000	1,880,000	4,006,000
Austrians...	810,000	1,710,000	1,855,000	4,375,000
Turks.....	95,000	110,000	140,000	345,000
Total...	1,395,000	3,456,000	3,875,000	8,726,000

"It is alleged and strongly maintained by the authorities," says Mr. Thomas, "that the proportion of killed to wounded is as 2 to 3, not as 1 to 4, or even 5, which was once supposed to be the ratio. The French and British have the highest proportion of wounded to killed, but it never rises as high as 2 to 1 when the record of the hospitals is complete, and of course prisoners are excluded."

In regard to the German computation of the French losses, it is to be observed that it tallies with the unofficial estimate of the French losses given by the committee of the French Relief Fund, which computed the German losses as something more than double. The rate of loss was calculated to be 127,000 men per month for the French. At this rate of wastage France can go on fighting for another twelve months without any weakening of her units in the field.

Harbored Ships

By LOUISE DE WETTER.

Still, as great birds with folded wings,
Their masts black spears against the
moon,
They ride at anchor on a silvered sea,
Wrapped in the lapping waves' low
croon.

Beyond, the hills lie—fold on fold
Against the Night's dark star-pierced
sky;
Long since, the two-score village lights
have died,
And hushed at last the sea-gull's
wailing cry.

The Dawn will shine upon a flock of
wind-curved sails,
On clustered, pale-faced women, filled
with dread. * * *
Far out beyond the harbor's circling hills
The ocean thunders deep—above its
dead!

Kirkwall, Orkney Islands, May 29, 1915.

War's Toll Upon Famous Families

By Charles Stolberg

This article appeared in The New York Evening Post of Aug. 7, 1915, and is here reproduced by permission.

WHEN on June 28 of last year at Serajevo, Bosnia, the bullets of assassin Gavrio Princep felled Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary and his wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, there resulted a single tragedy whose indirect consequences have since caused countless other tragedies in the lives of millions of people, not only in Europe, but in the remotest parts of the world.

The great world conflict which broke out soon after this murderous attack has placed the pall of mourning over every third home in the belligerent countries of Europe, and has even made its grim presence felt among people of unaffected neutral nations by the untimely deaths of those who may have ventured too near the zones of destruction.

The dreadful slaughter has fallen with especial heaviness on the upper and wealthy classes, and the names of hundreds of people prominent in all walks of life are being continually added to the growing casualty lists. Death knows no distinctions, and in taking victims has leveled all classes, from Prince to pauper. The bluest blood of Germany, England, and France has been poured out in battle. So great has been the loss in British officers in particular, that quite a number of heirs of great wealth among them have passed their entailed fortunes on to babies. Germany has had to give of her foremost families of the ancient nobility, of high Government officials who were serving as volunteers or reserves, of college professors, authors, scientists, newspaper men, artists, actors, musical virtuosi, sportsmen, and other prominent men of business or public life. A similar loss has been borne by France, Austria-Hungary, England, Russia, and all the belligerent countries.

Death's harvest among champions in the athletic and sporting world has been

sweeping. It includes names known to followers of tennis, golf, polo, horse racing, pugilism, rowing, running, and track events. Some of these victims had won fame as heroes in Olympic contests. And in their untimely deaths on the battlefields these athletes and sportsmen have covered themselves with glory.

The biggest loss in lives sustained by neutrals occurred, of course, in the sinking of the Lusitania off Kinsale Head, Ireland. A score or more Americans of national prominence had to sacrifice their lives in this terrible disaster. Although deaths of neutrals have occurred to some extent in the fields of military operations, by far the greatest number of neutral lives have been lost, like those on the Lusitania, in the German naval war zone about the British Isles.

No less than ten Princes of German royal houses have already fallen on the battlefield. The very first of these to lose his life was William, the reigning Prince of Lippe, shot before Liége last August by a Flemish carabineer, who had stumbled on the royal reconnoitring party, killing, at the same time, another Lippe, the nephew of Prince William, who was accompanying his uncle on a tour of inspection. Still another Lippe, Prince Ernest, met his death on the field of battle a month later. In the death of Prince Frederick of Saxe-Meinigen, who served as a Lieutenant General and was killed at Namur in August, 1914, by a shell, the Kaiser's eldest sister lost her brother-in-law and heir to the Saxe-Meinigen. The Prince was one of the most accomplished men of the empire, having rare gifts in music and art. The second son of Prince Frederick of Saxe-Meinigen, Prince Ernest, only 19 years old, was wounded at Maubeuge, the last of August, dying a few days later in the hospital. The youngest sister of the Kaiser, Princess Margaret, the wife of

Prince Frederick Charles of Hesse, gave her second son, Prince Maximilian, to the Fatherland. He was but 20 when slain, on Oct. 12, in France, in the engagement near Mount Descats.

The Kaiserin and the Queen Mother of the Netherlands have lost a relative in Prince Wolrad Frederick of Waldeck-Pyrmont, who was felled by a bullet while on patrol duty in France. Others of the German royalty killed in action are Prince Otto Victor of Schoenburg-Waldenburg, Premier Lieutenant of the Life Guards Hussar Regiment; Prince Henry of Reuss, son and heir to Prince Henry XXVII. of Reuss, and Prince Adelbert of Schleswig-Holstein and Sondeburg, whose niece married the Kaiser's fourth son, and who was a General of cavalry.

In England the only royal Prince who has fallen is Prince Maurice of Battenberg, the son of Queen Victoria's daughter, Princess Beatrice, and her German husband, Prince Henry of Battenberg. Prince Maurice, who was 23 and a Second Lieutenant in the King's Royal Rifle Corps, met his death at Ypres the last week in October.

Of the Romanoffs in Russia two have died in the present war, Grand Duke Alexander Michaelovitch, brother-in-law and cousin of the Czar, and Prince Oleg, a son of Grand Duke Constantine. Grand Duke Alexander was killed in the fighting at Miandoab, Persia, last January. In the Fall of 1913 he had visited America and was a guest of Mrs. John Astor at Beachwood, Newport. The affair which cost the life of Prince Oleg was a dashing cavalry charge on the Niemen last October, gallantly led by the Prince, who was carrying a standard at the time he received his mortal injury.

Strangely enough, no members of the royal house of Hapsburg have lost their lives since the death of Archduke Francis Ferdinand just before the outbreak of the war. The toll among Austrian titled families, however, has been just as heavy as in other countries. In Belgium, Prince George de Ligne, who had joined the Belgian colors as a volunteer, was killed during the fighting early last August.

The list of peers and titled English

who have laid down their lives is a long one. To this unexpected development of the war in England, the re-establishment of the prestige of the aristocracy—berated for a decade by Lloyd George, and bereft of political power by Prime Minister Asquith—has been due. The gallant conduct of the British officers in France and Flanders has been carefully used as a reminder to the middle-class Britisher that the aristocracy may have its good points. Most of the names of British nobles who have lost their lives in the service of their country are more or less familiar to the American public. Lord de Freyne, the fifth Baron and Captain in the Third Battalion of the South Wales Borderers, and his brother, the Hon. George Philip, Lieutenant in the same regiment, were killed in battle last May. Lord de Freyne served as an enlisted man in the United States Army in the Philippines, and succeeded to the title in 1913. Killed in action in Flanders on Oct. 30 was Lord Worsley, the eldest son of the Earl of Yarborough and a Lieutenant in the Royal Horse Guards.

A great fighting name is recalled by the death last Fall in Belgium of Captain Lord Richard Wellesley, great-grandson of the "Iron Duke" of Wellington. Captain the Hon. Henry Lyndhurst Bruse, husband of Camille Clifford, the so-called original "Gibson Girl," was killed at Ypres in December, while serving with the Royal Scots. Lord Grenfell's twin sons, Captain Riversdale Grenfell, V. C., a great polo player, and Captain Francis Grenfell, were both killed in France within a few months of each other. Sir Richard Levinge, a great Irish landowner and prominent sportsman, was killed while serving as a cavalry officer. Sir Robin Duff, a Lieutenant in the Second Life Guards, lost his life in France about three weeks after succeeding to the title and estate of his father, Sir Charles Asheton-Smith, classed among the richest men in England.

One of the very first distinguished Britons to fall was the young Lord Charles Nairn, who had been a personal member of King George's household, and

the possessor of many orders and decorations. He had served in the Boer campaigns with distinction. King George has lost a godson in Lieutenant George Naylor-Leyland, who died early in October from wounds received in France. He was but 22 and the heir to the title and fortune of his brother, Sir Albert Edward Naylor-Leyland. Lord Cowdray's youngest son, the Hon. Geoffrey Pearson, was killed by the Uhlans in France while carrying dispatches on his motor cycle. Captain William Cecil of the Grenadier Guards, eldest son of Lord William Cecil, leaves by his death a widow and a little son of two years to assume finally the honors of the Barony of Amherst and Hackney.

The Marquis of Crewe's son-in-law, Captain E. B. O'Neill, the heir of Baron O'Neill, was the first member of Parliament on the list of dead soldiers. William G. C. Gladstone, a Liberal member of the House of Commons, great-grandson of the Liberal statesman, was killed in action last April. Colonel William Wyndham, a bachelor of 38, Lord Rosebery's nephew and heir to the Earl of Leconfield, fell on the battlefield in Flanders last November. Death in battle has also taken young Percy Wyndham, son of the Countess Grosvenor and half brother to the Duke of Westminster. A famous Irish peerage, the Earldom of Dartry, is likely to become extinct through the death in action last November of Captain E. S. Dawson of the Coldstream Guards. He was the only male member of the family. Colonel George Lumley, brother and heir of the Earl of Scarborough, has fallen. Kaid Sir Harry Maclean, the hero of British operations in Morocco, has lost his son and heir, Captain Andrew Maclean of the East Surrey Regiment.

Other Britons of rank who have given their lives during the first year of the war are the following: Robert Cornwallis Maude, sixth Viscount Hawarden, a Lieutenant in the Coldstream Guards; Lord Bernard Gordon-Lennox, a Major in the Grenadier Guards; Lord John Spencer Cavendish, younger brother of the Duke of Devonshire; Lieutenant Archer Windsor-Clive of the Coldstream Guards, second son of the Earl of Plym-

outh; Captain Beauchamp Oswald Duff, the son of Sir Beauchamp Duff, commander of the army in India; Lord John Hamilton, brother of the Duke of Abercorn; the sons of Viscount Hardinge and Lord St. David; Lieutenant the Hon. Vere Boscawen, third son of Viscount Falmouth; Captain the Hon. A. E. S. Mulholland of the Irish Guards, eldest son of Baron Dunleath; Captain the Hon. Christian M. Hore-Ruthven, third son of Lord Ruthven; Captain Sir Frederick Villiers Laud Robinson; Captain the Hon. Charles Henry Stanley Monck, the heir of the Viscount Monck; Captain Sir Francis Ernest Waller; Lieutenant W. F. Rodney, brother of Lord Rodney; Lord Spencer Douglas Compton, brother and heir of the Marquis of Northampton; Captain the Hon. Douglas Arthur Kinnaid of the Scots Guards, eldest son of Lord Kinnaid; Major the Hon. Hugh Dawnay, second son of Viscount Downe; Major the Hon. A. C. Weld-Forester, third son of Baron Forester; Lieutenant Keith Anthony Stewart, son of the Earl of Galloway; Captain Eric Upton of the Royal Rifles, son-in-law of Viscount Templeton, and Major the Hon. C. B. Freeman-Metford, eldest son of Lord Ridesdale.

Of the old French aristocracy, there are but few houses that have not been placed in mourning. Lieutenant Count Jean de Rochambeau, a direct descendant of Marshal de Rochambeau, the French commander at Yorktown in the Revolutionary War, was killed on the battlefield in upper Alsace, June 14; Prince Ernest d'Arenberg, of the French branch of the Arenberg family and a Lieutenant in the Thirty-second Regiment of Infantry, was slain in the trenches last March. Count de Pierrefeu, who was employed in an office of the United States Steel Corporation in Chicago, went to France at the outbreak of the war and joined his regiment. Injured in the trenches last Winter, he joined an ambulance corps after his recovery. Later he met his death while engaged in Red Cross work. The Count's widow was a daughter of Mrs. William Tudor of Boston. In the death of the aged Baron Jean de Klopstein,

who was prominent in social and financial circles of Paris, the life of an innocent noncombatant was taken. The unfortunate Baron was shot dead while seated at a window of his château near the fighting front. It seems he had been unaware of the fact that an engagement was raging quite close by. Guy, Duc de Lorge, fell fighting against the Germans as a twenty-five-year-old Lieutenant of a French Dragoon regiment.

The Austrian Count George Festetics is reported to have been killed in battle in Galicia. Count Festetics was well known in London society, having been attached to the Austrian Embassy there. Count and Countess Széchenyi lost a cousin during the fighting in Galicia recently.

Of prominent German families the von Bülow's have, perhaps, suffered a greater loss than any other. The Berlin Kreuz Zeitung last March contained a notice announcing the deaths of ten members of that family at the front, all officers. Lieutenant von Bethmann-Hollweg, son of the German Chancellor, was killed in Poland early this year while daring the fire from the Russian trenches with a skirmishing party. Captain von Falkenhayn, son of the German Chief of General Staff, was shot dead 2,000 feet in the air near Amiens in January. Edwin Beit von Speyer, nephew of James Speyer of the New York banking firm, fell on Sept. 24 in a skirmish near Arras.

Germany and France have each had to sacrifice one of their leading statesmen. Jean Leon Jaurès, who for a decade had been the most prominent French Socialist leader, besides being a brilliant orator, debater, and journalist, was assassinated on the eve of war by a crank who had singled out Jaurès because of the latter's determined agitation for peace. Germany likewise lost a leading figure of her Reichstag in Dr. Ludwig Frank, the popular Socialist Democratic leader, also one of the foremost orators in Germany. Dr. Frank had volunteered at the outbreak of war and was killed in action before Lunéville, in the very first engagement in which he took part. Three Judges of the Paris bench lost their lives in battle

last October. Justice Blondell fell on the Meuse, and Justices Matillon and Per lange in the battles at the Aisne. Henri Collignon, French Counselor of State, was killed March 19 in Eastern France during a trench attack. He had volunteered as a private soldier, although 58 years old.

Jean, the youngest son of Premier Viviani, fell on Aug. 22 in a charge against the German trenches. Mme. Simone le Bargy, one of the most talented actresses in France, has lost her husband, Casimir Perrier, who was killed near Soissons early this year. Young Perrier was a son of ex-President Casimir Perrier of France and a member of a wealthy family. Dr. Godfrey Scheff, a surgeon in the Austrian Army and father of Fritzi Scheff, the actress, was killed in the fighting around Serajevo. While leading his company in a bayonet charge near Ypres in December, Dr. Karl Wilhelm Gross met his death. Dr. Gross had been exchange professor at Cornell University.

In the world of art and letters England has lost Colonel Guy Louis Busson du Maurier, whose play, "An Englishman's Home," based on the idea of a German invasion of England, attracted widespread attention some years ago. No other noted British author has been killed so far, though death has overtaken the sons of three well-known writers. Sir James M. Barrie's adopted son, Lieutenant George Davis, was slain in France. The young officer was the inspiration for Barrie's popular play, "Peter Pan." The death in action of Second Lieutenant Oscar Hornung, only son of E. W. Hornung, the novelist, and a nephew of Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, was reported recently. Lieutenant Harold Marion Crawford, eldest son of the late F. Marion Crawford, was accidentally killed by a bomb explosion at Givenchy on April 16.

The well-known German novelist, Herman Loens, author of "Der Wehrwolf," fell in the attack on Rheims. He was serving as a private in a regiment of volunteers, although more than 50 years old. Alberic Magnard, composer of the opera "Kerenice," was killed by

Uhlans while attempting to defend his villa near Nanteuil. Of the Parisian artists connected with the National Beaux Arts School who have gone to the front several have fallen. One of the first was Morris Berthon, chief of Jaussely's atelier. Another, Jean Hillmacher, lost his life at the battle of Vitry-le-François. Noel Hall, Pierre Sylvian Petit, Henry Caroly, Georges Aussenard, Maurice Vidal, Pierre Sibien, Louis Ringuet, and Jean Petit have all been killed in battle. Gustave Boisson, the guardian, has also fallen as a color-bearer in his regiment.

The effect of the stupendous struggle on athletics and sports will make itself felt for years to come. There is hardly a branch of sport that has escaped without losing one or more of its noted exponents. The havoc wrought by death among famous runners has unquestionably been the most startling. The names of some of these, known the world over for their prowess, follow: Lieutenant W. W. Halswelle, the Olympic champion in several events held in 1908; Anderson of Oxford, who competed in the Olympics at Stockholm; James Duffy, the Canadian distance runner, winner of the Yonkers and Boston marathons; Jean Bouin, the great French runner, whom experts considered the greatest distancer in the world; R. Rau, the champion Teuton sprinter and record holder; Hans Braun, the wonderful middle-distance runner; Max Hoffmann, who might have been the former's successor; Heinz Hegemann and Herman Lerow, German relay runners, and Karl Schoenberg, cross-country runner.

In the death of Anthony F. Wilding, killed in action at the Dardanelles, the tennis world loses a player who had been universally considered as the most skilled wielder of the racquet in the history of the sport. Kenneth Powell is another famous English tennis player to meet Wilding's fate. Germany's leading lawn tennis promoter, Dr. Otto Nirnheim, died in the hospital in Louvain, having been wounded by a bursting shell. Edward Kraeuse of Breslau, winner of German tennis tournaments, was killed in East Prussia. Chelli, a player of exceptional

ability, and du Bousquet are the French tennis players of note who have fallen.

Of noted golfers, one of the world's greatest amateurs, Captain John Graham, lost his life during a charge at Ypres. Lord Annesley, formerly amateur champion of Ireland, was killed in attempting a flight across the Channel on an air raid. Captain C. F. Barber of Chester went down in the Dardanelles on the battleship Goliath. Norman Hunter is reported among the "wounded and missing." Captain W. A. Henderson, who defeated Jerome Travers some years ago, was killed last Fall. Lieutenant H. N. Atkinson, erstwhile Welsh title holder, is another to lose his life. Julian Martin-Smith died of wounds received in battle. Miss Neill Fraser, a noted Scotch woman player, died with fever after serving as a field nurse.

The followers of polo mourn the loss of the great stars, Captain Francis Grenfell, V. C., and his brother, Riversdale, both killed in action, and of Captain Noel Edwards. Captain Riversdale Grenfell had been largely responsible for the revival and development of modern polo. Fletcher and McCraggin of the crews of Cambridge and Oxford are two noted oarsmen who have been killed. Captain Ludwig Peters of Mainz is another famous sculler who has fallen. The boxing world has lost Young Snowball, the Manchester paperweight; Battling Pye of Preston and Marcel Moreau, the French boxer. The list of dead among famous international football players includes the names of R. W. Poulton of the Oxford Blues; F. H. Turner, the Scottish international; R. O. Lagden, and Mijou Verneau, André Nernaud, and Elie Carpenter, well-known French soccer players. Popular German swimmers, Eugen Uhl and Adolf Rees of Stuttgart, Count Ferdinand Fischler von Treuberg of Munich and Captain Wimsen of Magdeburg also have fallen on the battlefield. Thoubaus, the champion javelin thrower of France, and Fritz Buchholtz, Germany's most expert spear thrower, were both slain in Flanders. Germany also lost her best high jumper in Erich Lehmann. One of the most prominent steeplechase riders of the German turf, Count von Wedel, bosom

friend of the Crown Prince, lost his life in action, as did also the popular English huntsman, Theodore Edward ("Teddy") Brooks. Brooks received a mortal wound while fighting with a relief brigade on the Ypres road.

Undoubtedly the most famous name among those of military leaders whose lives have gone to pay grim toll in the war is that of Field Marshal Earl Roberts, Great Britain's most distinguished soldier. Earl Roberts was so generally well known that it is hardly necessary to dwell here on his notable career, which came to an end last November after he had contracted pneumonia during an inspection tour of the trenches in France. Other British Generals and commanders whose names are to be found among the dead are the following: Brig. Gen. Charles Fitzclarence of the Irish Guards, Brig. Gen. Norman Reginald McMahon of the Royal Fusiliers, Brig. Gen. Neil Douglas Findlay of the Royal Artillery, Major Gen. Hubert I. W. Hamilton, Lieut. Gen. Sir William Edmund Franklyn, Brig. Gen. John E. Gough, Colonel Francis Douglas Farquhar, commander of Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry, and Lieut. Gen. Sir J. M. Grierson. Lieutenant Reginald A. J. Warneford, the young Indian aviator, was killed while testing his aeroplane. Only shortly before this he had won fame and distinction for having destroyed a Zeppelin in midair single-handed.

German Generals killed in action are Lieut. Gen. George Hildebrandt, Major Gen. Nieland, Lieut. Gen. Steinmetz, General von Wrochem, Major Gen. von Throtha, General von Arbou, and General von Trip. Five noted French commanders have met their deaths on the battlefield—Generals René Joseph Delarue, Marcot, Rondony, Sarrade, and de Montangon. General Welitchko, the Russian officer of Port Arthur fame, was killed in the fighting near Lodz. The famous Garibaldi family of Italy has lost two of its members, Colonel Peppino Garibaldi and Lieutenant Bruno Garibaldi, both slain in a victorious charge on the German trenches in the Argonne.

In celebrated naval commanders, Germany has suffered the principal loss. Although his fame was not established

before the present war the name of Captain Otto Weddigen, the submarine commander, stands out among these. His exploits in sinking four British cruisers will be long remembered. Captain Weddigen's heroic career was suddenly ended when his submersible, the U-29, was sunk, perhaps by a British merchantman. Admiral Count von Spee, the commander of the German squadron which won a signal victory early in the war against the English off the Chile coast, went down with his flagship in a later engagement off the Falkland Islands. In the naval action off the Chile coast, the British Rear Admiral, Sir Christopher Cradock, lost his life when his flagship, the Good Hope, foundered and sank with all on board. The naval battle in the North Sea last January cost the life of the commander of the German cruiser Blücher, Captain Erdmann. The Blücher was sunk, and Captain Erdmann, though rescued, died some days later from pneumonia due to exposure.

The lives of hundreds of other naval men, ranking from Captain and Commander down to petty officer, have been lost with the large number of fighting ships sunk since the beginning of the war. To enumerate them all would take up more space than can be spared in the present article.

A striking feature of this unprecedented war has been the large loss in neutral lives it has cost. America has borne a heavy toll. In the sinking of the Lusitania last May by a German submarine public sentiment was aroused, not only by the deaths of helpless women and children, but by the loss of several accomplished and popularly known people. The following were the best-known among the many victims: Alfred G. Vanderbilt, Elbert Hubbard, author; Charles Frohman, theatrical manager; Herbert S. Stone, publisher; Lindon W. Bates, Jr., of the Belgian Relief Commission; Justus Miles Forman, author and playwright; Dr. Fred Stark Pearson, a consulting engineer; Albert Lloyd Hopkins, shipbuilder, and Charles Klein, playwright. Commander J. Foster Stackhouse, R. N., and Sir Hugh Lane, both

English subjects, also went down with the ill-fated ship.

Following are the names of several other Americans whose deaths have been directly due to the war: Dr. Ernest P. Magruder, New York surgeon, died of typhoid fever while fighting the epidemic in Serbia; Henry Beech Needham, writer and war correspondent, killed during a trial flight with Lieutenant Warneford; William Lawrence Breese, killed in battle, was son-in-law of Hamilton Fish, and formerly secretary to Ambassador Page

in London; Paul Nelson, architect, mortally wounded while fighting with the French Army; Heinrich von Heinrichshofen of St. Louis, an American citizen, killed fighting as a Lieutenant in the German Army; Robert L. Cuthbert, a New York accountant, died in action with the British army in Flanders; André C. Champollion, a grandson of Austin Corbin, killed in battle serving in the French Army, and Maurice Davis of Brooklyn, also slain in France as a Lieutenant under the tricolor of the French Republic.

The Nation Speaks

By BEATRICE BARRY

Children of Liberty, awake!
In ordered ranks your places take!
Where Freedom's sons have blazed the trail,
Shall you, their leal descendants, fail
To hold in trust the ideal pure
That is their heritage secure?
Against the hour you would know how,
Learn ye to serve me—learn it now!

You, who from forms of bondage drear,
Have sought and found a refuge here—
Who reap the fruit of bitter tears
And patriot blood of former years,
Taking the most that I can give,
Learning how God meant men to live—
You promised fealty. Your vow
Was pledged to me. I need you now!

I need you now, my sons! Why wait
Till an invader storms the gate?
Your desperate resistance then
Might not avail. A host of men
Untrained, undisciplined, are less,
In time of peril and distress,
Than half that multitude would be,
Versed in the arts of soldiery.

Oh, these, my children! So secure,
So confident, so oversure,
While Europe dies, with warning writ
In blood across the face of it!
Valor, I doubt not, warms your heart—
Discretion is the better part!
Lest to the scourge your neck must bow,
Be ye prepared! I need you now!

Where, When, and by Whom Was the War Decided Upon?

By Guglielmo Ferrero

Translated from the Italian by Thomas Okey

The responsibility for the origin of this war is a matter that will occupy men's minds during its entire progress; it will be one of the first concerns of the great peace conference at its close, and historians of the future will examine again the evidences of the war's inception. What the Italian historian Ferrero thinks about the men who decided upon the conflict and how he identifies them are subjects of common concern, treated by him with the power of analysis that has placed him in the forefront of modern historical writers. The subjoined article forms the introduction to "Documents Relating to the Great War," published in London by T. Fisher Unwin, Ltd., and selected and arranged by Giuseppe A. Andriulli.

I.

EVERY apologist who in these days undertakes the defense of Germany asserts, on the authority of the White Book, that Germany is an innocent little lamb, the prey of three hungry wolves. I, too, have read this famous White Book in the English translation authorized by the German Government, a translation which has therefore an official value equal to the original. But I have not only read the White Book; I have also read the Orange Book, published by the Russian Government, and the Blue Book, which the English Government has reprinted and circulated in pamphlet form, entitled, "Great Britain and the European Crisis." Let us see if, from a comparative study of these three books, some gleam of the truth may be found.

The White Book, like the English pamphlet, is divided into two parts. The first and shorter portion contains a succinct narration of the events of the fateful last week of July; the second part is a collection of documents which are relied on to support and prove the statements made in the narration. The assertion made in the White Book is, according to the sub-title printed on the cover, that Russia and her sovereign "betrayed Germany's confidence"; that they forced her to take up arms by the premature mobilization of the Russian Army while the

German Government was seeking to make peace between Russia and Austria. The cause, therefore, of all the evil was the Russian mobilization. This being the argument of the White Paper, it is essential that we should know precisely how and when the mobilization was decreed and carried into effect.

Now, it would seem that among all the causes which may give rise to a war the mobilization of an army is a cause precise and concrete enough. It is not an intention which may be dissimulated or imagined; it is a great and impressive fact visible to all. It would appear at least clear, then, whether the German contention is true or not, that the Russian Government did give orders on a certain day that its army should be placed on a war footing. But no! The reader of the White Book is constrained to ask himself over and over again—but, after all, did or did not Russia mobilize her army? Let us see. In the narrative part of the White Book we are told that the first news of the Russian mobilization reached Berlin on the evening of July 26, as the documents numbered 6, 7, and 8 prove. The first of these, that bearing the number 6, is a telegram, dispatched on the 25th by the German Ambassador at St. Petersburg—as yet not rebaptized Petrograd—to the German Chancellor. It runs thus: "Message to

H. M. from General von Chelius, (German honorary aide de camp to the Czar.)

"The manoeuvres of the troops in the Krasnoe camp were suddenly interrupted, and the regiments returned to their garrisons at once. The manoeuvres have been canceled. The military pupils were raised today to the rank of officers instead of next Fall. * * * I have the impression that complete preparations for mobilization against Austria are being made."

Document No. 7 is another dispatch from the same Ambassador sent on the 26th. The Military Attaché requests the following message to be sent to the General Staff: "I deem it certain that mobilization has been ordered for Kiev and Odessa. It is doubtful at Warsaw and Moscow, and improbable elsewhere."

Document No. 8 is a laconic telegram from the German Consul at Kovno dispatched on the 27th.

"Kovno has been declared to be in a state of war."

Setting aside the last telegram, which relates to an event that happened in a remote corner of the vast Russian Empire, the first two witnesses, who are the important ones, only transmit suppositions and conjectures. "I have the impression," says the first. "I deem it certain," "It is doubtful, improbable," says the second. It will seem strange, at least, that in order to know whether a decree for mobilization was issued or not, reliance should be placed on conjectures—a decree which must have been followed by public proclamations and brought to the knowledge of millions of men. Anyhow, it will not appear convincing to the alert reader that the spark which caused so great a conflagration could have originated from these dispatches. And such, too, was the opinion of a person who, by reason of his official position, must have been even more experienced in these matters than the most alert of readers—the Imperial Chancellor of Germany—who telegraphed on July 26 to the German Ambassador in London as follows (Document No. 10):

"* * * According to news received here, the call for several classes of the reserves is expected immediately, which is equivalent to mobilization. If this

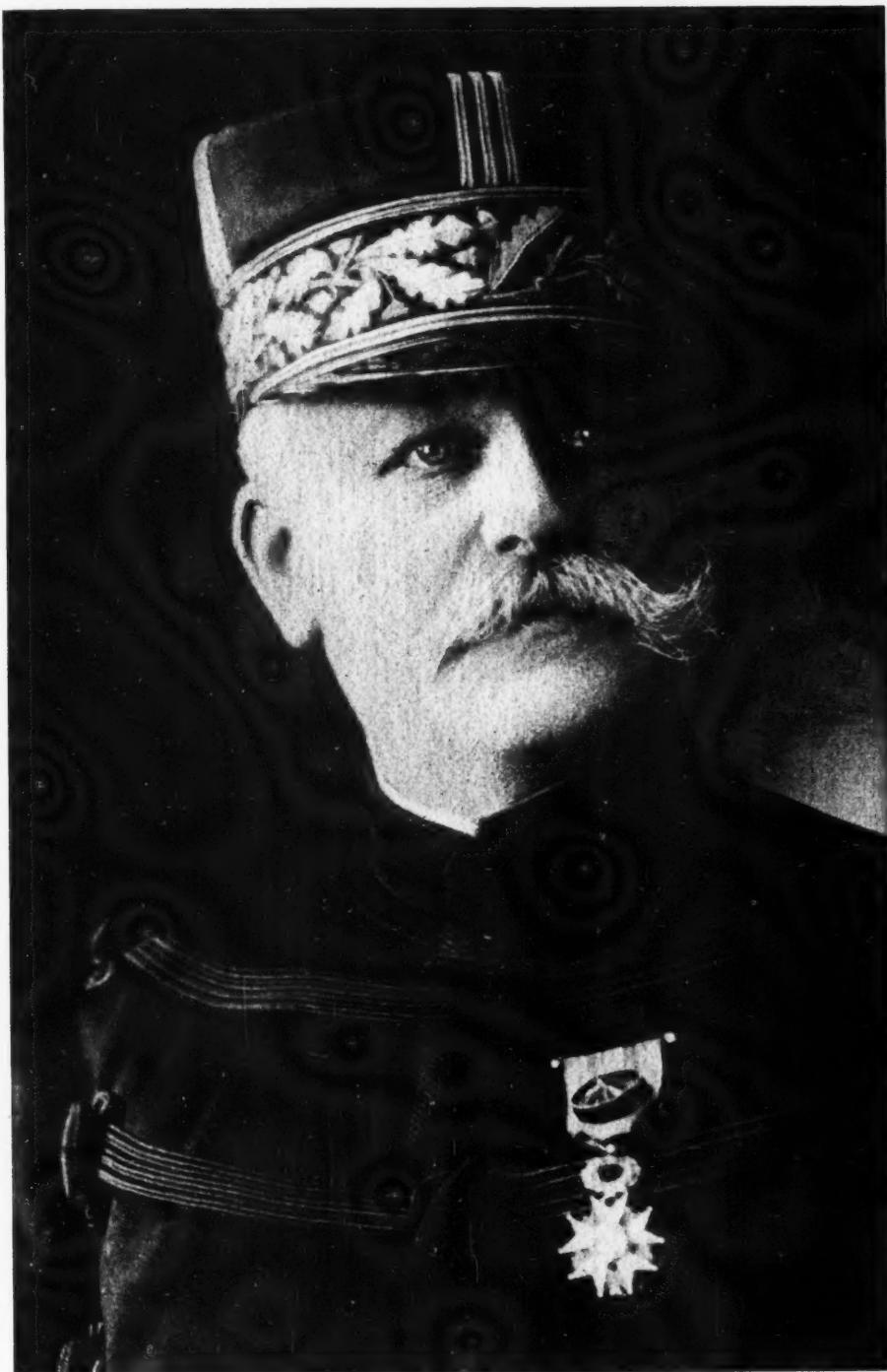
news proves correct, we shall be forced to countermeasures very much against our own wishes. Our desire to localize the conflict and to preserve the peace of Europe remains unchanged."

On July 26, therefore, the Chancellor was not yet certain that Russia had commenced mobilization on the Austrian frontier, and, at any rate, thought that even if it had, Germany would only have been compelled to take some measures dictated by prudence. To reassure him still further, there arrived from the German Ambassador at St. Petersburg on the 27th the following telegram, No. 11 in the list of documents:

"Military Attaché reports a conversation with the Secretary of War.

"Sazanoff has requested the latter to enlighten me on the situation. The Secretary of War has given me his word of honor that no order to mobilize has as yet been issued. Though general preparations are being made, no reserves were called and no horses mustered. If Austria crossed the Serbian frontier, such military districts as are directed toward Austria, viz., Kiev, Odessa, Moscow, Kazan, are to be mobilized. Under no circumstances those on the German frontier, Warsaw, Vilna, and St. Petersburg. Peace with Germany was desired very much. Upon my inquiry into the object of mobilization against Austria, he shrugged his shoulders and referred to the diplomats. I told the Secretary that we appreciated his friendly intentions, but considered mobilization, even against Austria, as very menacing."

The Russian Government, in fact, informs the German Government, by the mouth of its Minister of War, that it has made the necessary arrangements for mobilizing the army against Austria, but that the actual mobilization will take effect only if Austria declares war on Serbia. Must we take the Russian Minister's word? I think so. Because only by admitting he spoke the truth can we account for the rumors and conjectures current at St. Petersburg concerning the mobilization which were transmitted to Berlin on the 26th—rumors and conjectures followed by no actual, visible consequences which would afford any definite confirmation of the supposed mobil-



GENERAL SARRAIL

Who replaces General Gouraud as Commander in Chief of the French Army
of the Orient at the Dardanelles
(Photo from Medem Photo Service)



PAUL DESCHANEL

President of France's Chamber of Deputies, Who Replied to the Anniversary Manifesto of the German Kaiser

ization. On the other hand, the Russian Minister speaks clearly and sensibly enough. Russia never concealed the fact that she would arm if Austria attacked Serbia, and her Minister Sazanoff had, indeed, informed Austria of this fact during the Balkan crisis.

The reply of the attaché that mobilization, even against Austria, would be considered "as very menacing" seems strange, because this reply accords neither with the Chancellor's opinion manifested in the telegram of July 26, nor with the opinion which the German Emperor was to give expression to on the day following. In fact, the Emperor arrived at Berlin from the North Sea on July 28, and on that evening, at 10:45, sent a friendly and confident dispatch to the Czar (Document No. 20) which in every word breathes forth the steadfast purpose and certain hope of an amicable settlement. "In view of the cordial friendship," the Emperor writes, "which has joined us both for a long time with firm ties, I shall use my entire influence to induce Austria-Hungary to obtain a frank and satisfactory understanding with Russia." On the evening of the 28th, therefore, the Emperor appears to see everything in a rosy light, and does not judge that peace is endangered. Nor was he wrong in so doing, as it seems to us, if matters stood as the Russian Minister of War had said they did.

But, unhappily, on that very day Austria had declared war on Serbia, and the day after, the 29th, as we are informed in the narrative part of the White Book, the Russian Government dispatched an official communication to the German Government to the effect that a mobilization in the four districts on the confines of the Austro-Hungarian Empire had been ordered. The statement will appear credible to the alert reader because it accords with what the Russian Minister of War had told the German Military Attaché on the 27th; and the action of the Russian Government will not appear to him a provocative one, but merely the avowed reply of Russia to the declaration of war by Austria on Serbia. Both Austria and Germany had been loyally forewarned and—uomo avvisato è mezzo sal-

vato.* But, but—turning back some pages of the White Book, we happen on a telegram from the German Military Attaché, at St. Petersburg, dispatched on the 29th, which runs thus:

"The Chief of the General Staff has asked me to call on him, and he has told me that he has just come from his Majesty. He has been requested by the Secretary of War to reiterate once more that everything has remained as the Secretary had informed me two days ago. He offered confirmation in writing, and gave me his word of honor in the most solemn manner that nowhere had there been a mobilization, viz., calling in of a single man or horse, up to the present time, i. e., 3 o'clock in the afternoon. He could not assume a guarantee for the future, but he could emphasize the fact that in the fronts directed toward our frontiers his Majesty desired no mobilization.

"As, however, I had received here many pieces of news concerning the calling in of the reserves in different parts of the country, and also in Warsaw and Vilna, I told the General that his statements placed me before a riddle. On his officer's word of honor, he replied that such news was wrong, but that possibly here and there a false alarm may have been given.

"I must consider this conversation as an attempt to mislead us as to the extent of the measures hitherto taken, in view of the abundant and positive information about the calling in of reserves."

So it would appear that while the Russian Government was officially warning Berlin of its intention to mobilize against Austria, the Chief of the General Staff at St. Petersburg was saying precisely the opposite to the German Military Attaché. What does all this mean? the reader will ask. Are we to conclude with the worthy attaché that perfidious Russia was seeking to "betray Germany's confidence"? Nor is this all. Another surprise awaits us. At 6:30, on the evening of the 29th, the Emperor William sends a further dispatch, (Document No. 22,) still cordial, but no longer

*A man forewarned is half saved.

so confident as that of the day before. And in this he professes to suspect, but not indeed to know from certain knowledge, that the Russian mobilization may have been decreed. Among other things we read: "I believe that a direct understanding is possible and desirable between your Government and Vienna, an understanding which, as I have already telegraphed you, my Government endeavors to aid with all possible effort. Naturally, military measures by Russia, which might be construed as a menace by Austria-Hungary, would accelerate a calamity. * * *" The Emperor seems no longer easy in his rôle of peacemaker; he begins to fear that the military preparations made by Russia may endanger his efforts at mediation, all the while speaking of them not as if they had been, but as if they might have been, made. But whatever does this mean, if the Russian Government had officially announced at Berlin that it was mobilizing?

But even this is not all. Seven hours later—one hour after midnight—the Emperor William dispatches another telegram, (Document 23,) whose tone is wholly changed and which is couched in a dry, curt, almost menacing style. The German Emperor now almost refuses to act the peacemaker. Here is the text:

"My Ambassador has instructions to direct the attention of your Government to the dangers and serious consequences of a mobilization; I have told you the same in my last telegram. Austria-Hungary has mobilized only against Serbia, and only a part of her army. If Russia, as seems to be the case, according to your advice and that of your Government, mobilizes against Austria-Hungary * * * my position as mediator * * * becomes impossible. The entire weight of decision now rests on your shoulders. You have to bear the responsibility for war or peace."

So, then, in those seven hours the Emperor had at length persuaded himself that Russia's mobilization against Austria would imperil the maintenance of peace, although even then he was not certain that the mobilization had actually been commenced, since he speaks of it

as an event which seems to be verified. Two questions, therefore, force themselves upon us. After all said and done, had Russia, or had she not, mobilized her army on that day? And, for what reason was the German Emperor, who had still been so confident on the 28th, so uneasy during the night of the 29th, because Russia seemed to be mobilizing against Austria; while on the 31st, when it was known that Russia was mobilizing, Count Forzach, Under-Secretary of State for Austria-Hungary, informed the British Ambassador at Vienna that mobilization was not regarded as a necessary hostile act either by Russia or by Austria (Blue Book, Document 118) * * * ?

II.

The truth concerning Russian mobilization appears to be contained in the dispatch which the Czar sent to the German Emperor on July 30 at 1:20 P. M., in reply to a telegram from the Emperor. The Czar's dispatch is as follows:

"I thank you cordially for your quick reply. * * * The military measures now taking form were decided upon five days ago, and for reasons of defense against the preparations of Austria. I hope, with all my heart, that these measures will not influence, in any manner, your position as mediator." (Document 23A.)

On July 25, therefore, Russia had decided to mobilize the districts of Kiev, Moscow, Odessa, and Kazan, if Austria were to make war on Serbia. But as late as 3 P. M. on the 29th, when the Chief of the General Staff spoke with the German Military Attaché, Russia had not begun to give effect to her decision, and she did begin, as it would appear, only on the 30th. Austria having declared war on Serbia on the 28th, Russia then allowed two more days to pass, still hesitating, before putting her threat into execution. A new proof it would seem of her long-suffering patience and pacific intentions. Nor was the German Government ignorant that this was the position of things, for otherwise the Emperor would not, in his last dispatch, have spoken of the Russian mobilization as of a measure which might

still be carried into execution or not. The German Government, therefore, on the evening of July 29, was convinced that the Russian Chief of the General Staff was speaking the truth on the day of his interview with the German Military Attaché, and that the latter's suspicions were unfounded. Evidently the Czar had good grounds for his astonishment that the German Emperor felt himself, on the 29th, embarrassed as a peacemaker by measures taken on the 25th, since on the 28th, while fully cognizant of them, he had made no allusion to them, nor believed that they would impede his efforts. And we, too, are justified in our astonishment and have the right to ask what happened on that 29th day of July to make the German Emperor so suddenly change his ideas and his tone in his dispatches to the Czar. What happened to make him fear, as a grave and imminent danger, that mobilization against Austria which had only been deliberated upon, while knowing all the time that Russia, after having threatened mobilization, still hesitated before passing from words to deeds; while Austria, too, was not in the least alarmed even two days later when the mobilization was not only threatened but had already begun?

In vain do we seek the cause of this mysterious change in the White Book, where immediately after this imperial dispatch the thunderbolt of an ultimatum is launched under the date of July 31. On that date the Chancellor charges the German Ambassador at St. Petersburg to intimate to Russia that she must stop every measure of war within twelve hours, and he begins his telegram with these words: "In spite of negotiations still pending * * * Russia has mobilized her entire army, hence also against us. Wherefore, &c."

General mobilization! But this is another surprise. All the documents and information we have read up to the present in the White Book speak of a partial Russian mobilization against Austria. In a moment, without telling us when or how, nor by what channel the information reached the German Government, the Russian general mobil-

ization and the consequent German ultimatum are announced to us, at one and the same time, as if between one and the other no greater lapse of time had passed than that which separates the lightning-flash from the thunder-clap. And thus, in fact, it was. In the narrative part of the White Book we are told that the Russian Government ordered a general mobilization on the afternoon of July 31, and that the ultimatum was delivered by the German Ambassador at St. Petersburg on July 31 at midnight—less than twelve hours afterward! If one bears in mind the time needed for the news of the mobilization to reach the German Embassy at St. Petersburg and from thence to be transmitted by dispatch to Berlin; if one also reflects on the time necessary to telegraph the ultimatum from Berlin to St. Petersburg and to deliver it to M. Sazanoff at the Russian Foreign Office, one is forced to conclude that the German Government, by its ultimatum, decided on war while one might light and smoke a cigar. So much haste, and why? Was the atmosphere so threatening that no delay was possible? No. Not only did the negotiations between Austria and Russia continue on July 30 and 31, but actually on the 31st they were much more promising than they had been during the previous days. And precisely on the 31st Austria made the greatest stride toward a compromise that she had hitherto made; for she consented to discuss her note to Serbia with Russia and the European powers, and the Czar telegraphed to the Emperor of Germany promising on his word of honor that so long as diplomatic discussions continued his troops should not be moved.

What, then, had happened?

Few are they that know, and they will defer speaking as long as possible—until the nations, decimated and impoverished by the war, shall demand of their sovereigns and of their Ministers an account of their every act, word, and intention. For the present we can only make surmises. But it appears to me that the key to the mystery may be found in two documents of capital importance in the Orange Book and the Blue Book. The first is the document

which, in the Orange Book, bears the number 58, and consists of a telegram dispatched by Sazanoff to the Russian Ambassador at Paris on July 29; the second is the document numbered 85 in the Blue Book—a telegram dispatched by the British Ambassador at Berlin on the evening of the 29th. Two dispatches sent forth on that day on which so many strange events happened—on that day when the German Emperor, as we have seen, had sent two such different dispatches to the Czar at an interval of seven hours; one at 6 o'clock in the evening, the other at one hour after midnight.

The telegram which the Russian Minister for Foreign Affairs dispatched to his Ambassador in Paris—it is to be regretted that the hour of its dispatch is not given—runs thus:

"The German Ambassador today informed me of the decision of his Government to mobilize if Russia did not stop her military preparations. Now, in point of fact, we only began these preparations in consequence of the mobilization already undertaken by Austria, and owing to her evident unwillingness to accept any means of arriving at a peaceful settlement of her dispute with Serbia. As we cannot comply with the wishes of Germany, we have no alternative but to hasten our own military preparations and to assume that war is probably inevitable. * * *

Now do you understand, O alert reader, what a strange kind of peacemaker the German Emperor was? On July 29, when it was known at Berlin that Russia, at the supreme moment of passing from words to deeds by mobilizing against Austria, hesitated; when Austria, who must have been somewhat more interested in the matter than Germany, had not been consulted and showed no anxiety on account of the menaced Russian mobilization, Germany intimates to Russia that she must disarm in the face of Austria, and threatens to mobilize and hence to make war if she does not. How can so singular a step be explained, concerning which the White Book is silent, except by attributing to the German Government the firm intention of diplomatically browbeating Russia and, if threats

proved vain, to make war and constrain Austria to follow her? Does it or does it not appear to you that in this telegram Germany is surprised in a flagrant aggression? Moreover, let us now read Document 85 in the Blue Book, and we shall discover matters of far graver import. This document, as we have said, is a dispatch sent to the Minister for Foreign Affairs by the British Ambassador at Berlin on the evening of July 29. And what does the British Ambassador telegraph to his Foreign Minister? He telegraphs that he was asked to call upon the Chancellor on that night, who had just returned from Potsdam. In the introductory narrative of events the information is given that the Ambassador was sent for late at night. Grave and urgent, therefore, were the matters which the Chancellor had to communicate to the Ambassador, and matters appertaining to the discussion that had taken place in the Conciliabule or Council with the Emperor at Potsdam, since the Chancellor had scarcely returned to Berlin from Potsdam before he sent for the Ambassador, and sent for him late at night, at so unusual and inconvenient an hour! He had, in fact, to ask him, neither more nor less, if Great Britain would promise to remain neutral in a European war, on the understanding that Germany respected the integrity and neutrality of the Netherlands, and took from France only her colonies.

This document speaks clearly enough. It tells us that war was virtually decided upon on the evening of July 29 at that colloquy or Council between Chancellor and Emperor which was held at Potsdam, and which certainly took place between the first and the second telegram sent to the Czar by the Emperor. Thus alone can the haste be explained with which the Chancellor on his return to Berlin sent for the British Ambassador and had that conversation with him which, as the introductory narrative to the Blue Book tells us, seemed so strange to the British Government when it was known in London.

Now, by the light of these two documents many things are clear. There was a party in Germany powerful at Court

and in the Government which, for ten years, had been urging Germany to take up arms. This party, probably between the 28th and the 29th, had surrounded the Emperor who, on the 28th, still appeared animated by reasonable intentions. Austria, by declaring war on Serbia, had only too effectively furnished the war party at Berlin with a terrible argument—the argument that war was inevitable. And if war could not be prevented was it not better for Germany to precipitate it? So Emperor and Government allowed themselves to be persuaded to intimate to Russia that she must disarm, and, at the same time, the Emperor changes his tone in his correspondence with the Czar. It is not improbable that on July 29 the Emperor and the German Government still deluded themselves that Russia would yield to threats as she did in 1908 and during the Bosnia-Herzegovina crisis, and the Russian Government's hesitation to mobilize may have encouraged this delusion.

But, during the afternoon, a telegram arrives at Berlin from the German Ambassador at St. Petersburg which we may search in vain for in the White Book—the telegram which we have cognizance of from Document 58 published in the Orange Book. In this telegram the conversation between the German Ambassador and the Russian Minister is reported, and it is therefore now known at Berlin that Russia refuses to suspend her military preparations: the German Government, in fact, understands that this time Russia will not yield to threats. The Chancellor hastens with the telegram to Potsdam, and at Potsdam the decision is taken to dispatch a last and more menacing ultimatum to Russia and, if that failed of its effect, to go to war. The Chancellor returns to Berlin that same night to ask of the English Ambassador the price of British neutrality; the Emperor dispatches his telegram to the Czar, one hour after midnight, which partially reflects the answer given to the German Ambassador by Sazanoff; and at two in the morning of the 30th the German Ambassador calls on Sazanoff for one last fateful colloquy. Of this we have information in the document published in

the Blue Book which relates how the German Ambassador burst into tears when he perceived that Russia would not give way. He understood that war was now decided upon.

Any one who reads the White Book attentively and compares it with the Blue Book and the Orange Book will inevitably be led to believe that the war was decided upon at Berlin, not, indeed, after Russia had begun her general mobilization, but on the evening of the 29th, and before even she had begun her partial mobilization against Austria. This being admitted, it is easy to explain why the ultimatum was decided upon with such haste when the news that Russia was proceeding to mobilize the whole of her army had scarcely reached Berlin. To declare war a pretext was necessary, for it would have been strange indeed that Germany, in a dispute that had arisen between Russia and Austria—Germany who, as an ally, was only a secondary party to the quarrel—should have declared war on Russia because she was mobilizing her army against Austria at a time when Austria declared that she did not interpret this message as a threat. Even the German professors who signed the famous manifesto would then have perceived that Germany alone was the aggressor. Hence the news that arrived on the 31st of the precautionary measures taken by Russia, for a general mobilization, came pat, (and that nothing more as yet was intended on the part of Russia is proved by Document 113 in the Blue Book,) and the pretext was immediately seized upon, since war had already been decided. The precipitation with which the German Government dispatched the ultimatum on July 31 can be explained only in two ways: either we must admit that the German Government had suddenly gone mad; or that war had already been decided upon before, namely, on that fateful evening of July 29.

Unfortunately for Germany, precisely on that very day Austria-Hungary appears to have become terrified and hesitated. She, too, had contrived her Balkan adventure, hoping that Russia would let things drift. When she perceived that a European war was imminent she

grew afraid, and she sought for time and means to provide an escape. The precipitation with which, on July 31, the German Government seized the first pretext to hand in order to bring about a war in a conflict in which she was not directly interested rendered these good intentions of the eleventh hour vain. If Austria

is perhaps more responsible than Germany for the decision taken at Potsdam, the responsibility for the ultimatum of July 31 seems to lie wholly on Germany. Germany and Austria, therefore, must share equally between them the responsibility for this unparalleled catastrophe before the world and before the Tribunal of History.

Viva Italia!

By J. CORSON MILLER.

"They marched forth gayly, with flowers
stuck in their rifles."

On Paestum's plain the roses stir,
Dawn's gold is on the olive trees;
Fair Florence dreams of days that were,
Yet now are dusty memories.
But, see! Italia's sons are ever brave,
Though War's stern duty lead but to the
grave.

For this is Dante's Land of Song,
Which Verdi's mighty music thrills;
Look! Garibaldi's legions throng,
In ghostly lines, the Tuscan hills!
Bravo! Italia's Sons shall never fail,
What time her enemies the gates assail!

See, where Anconia keeps her sleep,
Or where Salerno meets the sea,
The glad-eyed armies onward sweep,
Dreaming high dreams of destiny.
Like supple steel Italia's Sons are made,
Yea, they shall battle well, and unafraid!

The moon hangs low o'er Naples Bay,
The stars her ancient glories tell;
The almond blossoms softly sway,
While chimes the midnight chapel bell.
Italia's Sons shall fight like warriors all,
From out her splendid past her heroes
call.

Britain's Blockade

Official Correspondence with the American Government

Published by Sir Edward Grey

Semi-official press utterances in Germany indicate that the character of the German Government's reply to the last protest of the United States regarding the Lusitania—that dated July 21, 1915—will be determined largely by the reply to be made by this country to Great Britain following the publication, on Aug. 3, of five diplomatic communications relating to the detention of American ships and cargoes by the British Government. An account of this correspondence appears below.

FIVE diplomatic communications relating to the detention of American ships and cargoes by the British Government, exchanged by cable between Great Britain and the United States, were made public textually and in paraphrase by the State Department at Washington on Aug. 3, 1915. Generally considered, the British responses to the American representations in opposition to the course of the British Government are a denial of the American contentions, but a disposition is shown by Great Britain to "make reasonable concessions to American interests," to quote a phrase of one of the notes.

In connection with the American protest against British prize-court procedure, the British Government suggests that appeals in behalf of American interests claiming to have been injured be taken to the proper British tribunals and, if these appeals are denied, that recourse be had to an international tribunal. But Great Britain hopes that her disposition to make reasonable concessions "will prevent the necessity for such action arising."

The British communications are signed by Sir Edward Grey, Secretary for Foreign Affairs. They comprise an answer to the American protest of March 30 against the application of the British Order in Council for preventing supplies from going into Germany—an answer to a brief telegram from this Government serving notice of an intention to insist upon the rights of American citizens without limitation by Orders in Council, and of a refusal to recognize the validity

of prize-court proceedings in derogation of the rights of American citizens, and an answer to a note sent by Secretary Lansing on July 15 objecting to compulsory unloading at a British port of goods from Belgium brought in the American steamer Necho, the compulsion being applied on the ground that the goods originated in territory held by an enemy of Great Britain. The American communications furnished to the press for publication consisted of paraphrases of the brief telegram, serving notice with respect to the Orders in Council and prize-court proceedings and the note sent in connection with the seizure of the cargo of the Necho.

The response of Sir Edward Grey with respect to the Necho is one of the most interesting in the series. German and British methods of warfare at sea are cited to show justification for the strict measures taken by Great Britain to restrain trade with Germany.

In another British communication, that of July 23, in answer to the American note of March 30, on the subject of the restrictions imposed on American commerce by the British Orders in Council, Sir Edward Grey defends the Order in Council measures on the ground that it is incumbent on Great Britain and her allies "to take every step in their power to overcome their common enemy in view of the shocking violation of the recognized rules and principles of civilized warfare of which he has been guilty during the present struggle." Sir Edward Grey recalls that the attention of the American Ambassador in London already

had been drawn to some of the German irregularities of warfare in a memorandum of Feb. 19, and adds:

Since that time Lord Bryce's report, based on evidence carefully sifted by legal experts, describing the atrocities committed in Belgium, the poisoning of wells in Southwest Africa, the use of poisonous gases against the troops in Flanders, and finally the sinking of the Lusitania without an opportunity to passengers and noncombatants to save their lives have shown how indispensable it is that we should leave unused no justifiable method of defending ourselves.

In the note in which this argument is used the British Foreign Secretary contends, in answer to the American objection to the Orders in Council, that his Government is unable to admit that a belligerent violates any fundamental principle of international law by applying a blockade in such a way as to cut off the enemy's commerce with foreign countries through neutral ports, "if the circumstances render such an application of the principles of blockade the only means of making it effective." It is asserted by Sir Edward Grey that the only question that can arise in regard to the new character of blockade instituted by the British Government, the so-called long-distance blockade, is whether the measures taken conform to "the spirit and principles of the essence of the rules of war," these being the words used in the American note of March 30.

Arguing from that basis, Sir Edward Grey cites the Union blockade of Confederate ports in the American civil war and points out that, in order to meet a new difficulty produced by the fact that neighboring neutral territory afforded convenient centres from which contraband could be introduced into the Southern States and from which blockade running could be facilitated, the United States applied and enforced the doctrine of continuous voyage. Under this application, Sir Edward Grey points out, "goods destined for enemy territory were intercepted before they reached the neutral ports from which they were to be re-exported." The argument follows:

It may be noted in this connection that at the time of the civil war the United States found themselves under the neces-

sity of declaring a blockade of some 3,000 miles of coast line, a military operation for which the number of vessels available was at first very small. It was vital to the cause of the United States in that great struggle that they should be able to cut off the trade of the Southern States. The Confederate armies were dependent on supplies from overseas, and those supplies could not be obtained without exporting the cotton wherewith to pay for them.

To cut off this trade the United States could only rely upon a blockade. The difficulties confronting the Federal Government were in part due to the fact that neighboring neutral territory afforded convenient centres from which contraband could be introduced into the territory of their enemies and from which blockade running could be facilitated. Your Excellency will no doubt remember how, in order to meet this new difficulty, the old principles relating to contraband and blockade were developed, and the doctrine of continuous voyage was applied and enforced, under which goods destined for the enemy territory were intercepted before they reached the neutral ports from which they were to be re-exported.

The difficulties which imposed upon the United States the necessity of reshaping some of the old rules are somewhat akin to those with which the Allies are now faced in dealing with the trade of their enemy. Adjacent to Germany are various neutral countries which afford her convenient opportunities for carrying on her trade with foreign countries. Her own territories are covered by a network of railways and waterways, which enable her commerce to pass as conveniently through ports in such neutral countries as through her own. A blockade limited to enemy ports would leave open routes by which every kind of German commerce could pass almost as easily as through the ports in her own territory. Rotterdam is indeed the nearest outlet for some of the industrial districts of Germany.

As a counterpoise to the freedom with which one belligerent may send his commerce across a neutral country without compromising its neutrality, the other belligerent may fairly claim to intercept such commerce before it has reached, or after it has left, the neutral State, provided, of course, that he can establish that the commerce with which he interferes is the commerce of his enemy and not commerce which is bona fide destined for or proceeding from the neutral State. It seems, accordingly, that if it be recognized that a blockade is in certain cases the appropriate method of intercepting the trade of an enemy country, and if the blockade can only become effective by extending it to enemy commerce passing

through neutral ports, such an extension is defensible and in accordance with principles which have met with general acceptance.

To the contention that such action is not directly supported by written authority, it may be replied that it is the business of writers on international law to formulate existing rules rather than to offer suggestions for their adaptation to altered circumstances, and your Excellency will remember the unmeasured terms in which a group of prominent international lawyers of all nations condemned the doctrine which had been laid down by the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of the *Springbok*, a doctrine upheld by the Claims Commission at Washington in 1873. But the United States and the British Government took a broader view and looked below the surface at the underlying purpose, and the Government of this country, whose nationals were the sufferers by the extension and development of the old methods of blockade made by the United States during the civil war, abstained from all protest against the decisions by which the ships and their cargoes were condemned.

What is really important in the general interest is that adaptations of the old rules should not be made unless they are consistent with the general principles upon which an admitted belligerent right is based.

Thus it is contended that Germany is in a position of peculiar advantage in the shipment of goods to neutral ports. In supporting the British restrictions on trade with neutral ports near German territory, it is asserted that a blockade limited to enemy ports would have open routes by which German commerce could pass almost as easily as through the ports in her own territory. By this argument Great Britain seeks to show that she found precedent for her "long-distance blockade" in steps taken by the United States in attempting to prevent supplies from reaching the Southern Confederacy. The position of the British Government is that if a blockade is the appropriate method of intercepting the trade of an enemy country and can be made effective only by extending it to enemy commerce through neutral ports, the extension is in accordance with principles generally accepted.

Assurances are contained in the British response to the American communication of March 30 that Great Britain is not interfering with goods with which she

would not be entitled to interfere by blockade if the geographical position and conditions of Germany at this time were such that her commerce passed through her own ports. The utmost possible care is being taken, it is declared, not to interfere with commerce "genuinely destined for or proceeding from neutral countries." The only commerce with which Great Britain proposes to interfere is that of the enemy.

The main argument of Great Britain is that when the established underlying principles governing blockade and contraband are not violated it is permissible to adopt new measures of enforcement. In view of this and the contention that there has been no violation of the underlying principles, Great Britain holds that it is impossible to maintain that the right of a belligerent to intercept the commerce of an enemy is limited in the way suggested by the United States.

Sir Edward Grey says the British Government has been gratified to observe that the measures Great Britain is enforcing have had no detrimental effect on the commerce of the United States. Figures of recent months, he points out, show that "the increased opportunities afforded by the war for American commerce have more than compensated for the loss of the German and Austrian markets."

The note of the British Government, dated July 31, supplementary to the answer to the American note of March 30, is primarily a response to the so-called caveat telegram of Secretary Lansing sent on July 14, in which notice was given of the intention of this Government to insist on the rights of American citizens under the principles of international law hitherto established without limitation or impairment by Orders in Council or other municipal legislation, and to refuse to recognize the validity of prize court proceedings taken under British municipal law in derogation of the international law rights of American citizens.

Sir Edward Grey says he is not aware of any differences between the two Governments as to the principles of law ap-

plicable to cases before the prize courts, and then discusses prize court procedure at length, quoting Lord Stowell in the case of the *Fox* to show that a prize court must care for the interests of subjects of other countries as well as for the interests of its own Government, but that the court must assume that there is no violation of the rights of the subjects of other countries in the orders which it receives from its own Government.

Sir Edward Grey then makes the suggestion that if appeals open to dissatisfied American litigants in the prize court are denied by British appellate courts, an international tribunal shall be called on to decide. The United States and Great Britain, he says, have both conceded that the decisions of national prize courts may properly be subjected to international review—by the Jay Treaty

of 1793 and the Treaty of Washington of 1871. It is clear, therefore, he says, that both Governments have adopted the principle that the decisions of a national prize court may be open to review in certain circumstances; but if the United States should take a contrary view Great Britain would be prepared to negotiate with the United States as to the best means of procedure to apply the principle mentioned. But Sir Edward Grey hopes that the British willingness to make concessions will obviate necessity for this procedure.

The compulsory discharge of the *Neches* cargo because it came from belligerent territory held by Germany made cause for complaint in the American note of July 15, and the British reply thereto appears in the subjoined correspondence.

American Protest on Seizure of *Neches* Cargo

The Secretary of State to Ambassador W. H. Page:

Telegram-Paraphrase. No. 1852.
Department of State, Washington,
July 15, 1915.

Ambassador Page is informed that it has been brought to the attention of the department that the steamship *Neches*, of American register, sailing from Rotterdam for the United States, carrying a general cargo, after being detained at the Downs, was brought to London, where it was required by the British authorities to discharge cargo, the property of American citizens.

It appears that the ground advanced to sustain this action is that the goods originated, in part at least, in Belgium, and fall, therefore, within the provisions of Paragraph 4 of the Order in Council of March 11, which stipulates that every merchant vessel sailing from a port other than a German port, carrying goods of enemy origin, may be required to discharge such goods in a British or allied port.

Ambassador Page is instructed in this case to reiterate the position of the Government of the United States as set forth

in the department's instruction of March 30, 1915, with respect to the Order in Council mentioned, the international invalidity of which the Government of the United States regards as plainly illustrated by the present instance of the seizure of American-owned goods passing from the neutral port of Rotterdam to a neutral port of the United States, merely because the goods came originally from territory in the possession of an enemy of Great Britain.

Mr. Page is also instructed to inform the Foreign Office that the legality of this seizure cannot be admitted and that, in the view of the Government of the United States, it violates the right of the citizens of one neutral to trade with those of another, as well as with those of belligerents, except in contraband or in violation of a legal blockade of an enemy seaport; and that the right of American owners of goods to bring them out of Holland, in due course, in neutral ships must be insisted upon by the United States, even though such goods may have come originally from the territories of enemies of Great Britain. He is directed further to insist upon the desire

of this Government that goods taken from the Neches, which are the property of American citizens, should be expeditiously released to be forwarded to their

destination, and to request that he be advised of the British Government's intended course in this matter at the earliest moment convenient to that Government.

British Answer on Seizure of Neches Cargo

Ambassador W. H. Page to the Secretary of State:

(Telegram.)

American Embassy,
London, July 31, 1915.

Sir Edward Grey has today sent me the following note:

The note which your Excellency addressed to me on the 17th inst. respecting the detention of the cargo of the steamship Neches has, I need hardly say, received the careful attention of his Majesty's Government.

The note which I had the honor to send to your Excellency on the 23d inst. has already explained the view of his Majesty's Government on the legal aspect of the question, though it was prepared before your Excellency's communication of the 17th had been received, and, pending consideration by the Government of the United States of the views and arguments set forth in the British note of the 23d, it is unnecessary for me to say more on the question of right or of law.

There is, however, one general observation that seems relevant to the note from your Excellency respecting the cargo of the Neches.

It is the practice of the German Government, in the waters through which the Neches was passing, to sink neutral as well as British merchant vessels, irrespective of the destination of the vessel or origin of the cargo, and without proper regard or provision for the safety of passengers or crews, many of whom have lost their lives in consequence. There can be no question that this action

is contrary to the recognized and settled rules of international law, as well as to the principles of humanity.

His Majesty's Government, on the other hand, have adhered to the rule of visit and search, and have observed the obligation to bring into port and submit to a prize court any ships or cargoes with regard to which they think they have a good case for detention or for condemnation as contraband.

His Majesty's Government are not aware, except from the published correspondence between the United States and Germany, to what extent reparation has been claimed from Germany by neutrals for loss of ships, lives, and cargoes, nor how far these acts have been the subject even of protest by the neutral Governments concerned.

While those acts of the German Government continue, it seems neither reasonable nor just that his Majesty's Government should be pressed to abandon the rights claimed in the British note of the 23d and to allow goods from Germany to pass freely through waters effectively patrolled by British ships of war.

If, however, it be alleged that, in particular cases and special circumstances, hardships may be inflicted on citizens of neutral countries, his Majesty's Government are ready in such cases to examine the facts in a spirit of consideration for the interest of neutrals, and in this spirit they are prepared to deal with the cargo of the Neches, to which your Excellency has called attention, if it is held that the particular circumstances of this case fall within this category.

PAGE.

Austria's Note and the American Reply

Respecting American Shipments of Arms and Ammunition

The Embassy of Austria-Hungary on Aug. 1, 1915, gave out at Washington the first official translation of the text of the note addressed by that Government to the United States with respect to the shipment of arms and ammunition from this country to the Allies. The embassy stated that the translation was "the first uncensored text to be made public in the United States." The note appears below.

THE far-reaching effects resulting from the fact that a very extensive trade in war supplies has been going on for some time between the United States and Great Britain and her allies, while Austria-Hungary and Germany have been entirely shut off from the American market, have from the first attracted the most earnest attention of the Imperial and Royal Government. If the undersigned permits himself to take part in the discussion of a question which hitherto has been brought to the attention of the Washington Cabinet by the Imperial German Government only, he merely follows the dictates of unavoidable duty of protecting the interests intrusted to him from further grave injury growing out of the situation affecting Germany and Austria-Hungary equally.

The Imperial and Royal Government is convinced that the attitude of the United States Government in this matter originates from no other intention than the maintenance of the strictest neutrality and the observance to the letter of all the stipulations of the international agreements involved, but the question arises as to whether the conditions, as they have developed in the course of the war, certainly quite independently of the will of the United States Government, are not such that the very intention of the Washington Cabinet is defeated—indeed, that exactly the opposite effect is produced. If this question be answered in the affirmative—and, according to the opinion of the Imperial and Royal Government this cannot be doubted—then another question automatically follows, namely, whether it is not possible, indeed advisable, to take measures to provide full effectiveness to the wish of the Gov-

ernment of the United States to assume an attitude of strict fairness toward both belligerent parties. The Imperial and Royal Government does not hesitate to answer this question also in the affirmative without qualification.

It certainly has not escaped the attention of the American Government, which has co-operated in the work of The Hague in such a prominent manner, that the spirit and the letter of the fragmentary stipulations of the treaties in question are not entirely coextensive.

If one takes into consideration the genesis of Article 7 of the Fifth and Thirteenth Conventions, respectively, upon which the Government of the United States apparently rests the present case, and the wording of which, as will not be denied, offers a formal basis for the toleration of the trade in war materials as carried on at present by the United States, it is not necessary to point out—in order to realize the true spirit and range of this stipulation, which incidentally seems to have been modified already by prohibiting the delivery of warships and certain supplies for warships of belligerent countries—that the various rights as conceded to neutral countries, in the spirit of the preamble of the last-named convention, are limited by the requirements of neutrality in correspondence with the accepted principles of international law. According to all the authorities on international law, who have especially dealt with the questions which here arise, the neutral Government is not permitted to allow unhindered trade in contraband of war if this trade assumes such character and proportions that the country's neutrality is thereby impaired.

In judging the admissibility of the trade in contraband of war, one can

use as a basis any one of the various criteria established by law, and arrive, according to each, at the conclusion that the export of war materials from the United States as it is carried on cannot be made to accord with the requirements of neutrality. It is not a question as to whether the branch of American industry occupied with the production of war material shall be protected in order that its export, as it has been carried on in peace times, may suffer no impairment.

Furthermore, this industry has experienced an unexpected increase because of the war. In order to manufacture the immense amount of weapons, munitions, and other war material of all kinds which Great Britain and her allies have ordered in the United States of America in the course of the last month, it required not only the full utilization and adaptations of existing plants, but the creation of new factories, as well as the diversion of large numbers of workmen from all branches of trade—in short, a widespread change in the economic life of the country—the right of the American Government can from no quarter be disputed to decree an embargo on this obviously enormous export of war material which is notoriously for the exclusive benefit of one of the belligerent parties.

The United States Government could meet with no objection if it were to avail itself of its competency, even if it took recourse to the passage of a law in accordance with its Constitution. Even if it proved correct in principle that a neutral State may not change the law in force within its jurisdiction concerning its attitude toward belligerents during the war, there is, however, an exception to the principle, as is clearly shown in the preamble of the Thirteenth Hague Convention: “* * * where experience has shown the necessity for such change for the protection of the rights of that power.”

This case arises for the United States Government by the mere fact that Austria-Hungary as well as Germany are cut off from any commercial intercourse

with the United States without the existence of a legal ground—a legally effective blockade.

To the possible objection that although American industry is perfectly willing to supply Austria-Hungary and Germany as well as Great Britain and her allies, the United States are not able to carry on trade in consequence of the war situation. It may well be mentioned that the United States Government is without doubt in a position to remedy the above-described condition. It would be entirely sufficient to hold out to the adversaries of Austria-Hungary and Germany the inhibition of the export of food-stuffs and raw materials if the legitimate trade in these articles between the Union and the two central powers is not permitted.

If the Washington Cabinet could find itself prepared to act in this direction, it would not only follow the tradition always upheld in the United States to safeguard the freedom of the seas, but it would also offer the great service of defeating the criminal endeavor of the enemies of Austria-Hungary and Germany to enlist starvation as an ally.

The Imperial and Royal Government, in the spirit of the excellent relations which have never ceased to exist between the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and the United States of America, and in the name of sincere friendship, permits itself to make an appeal to the Government of the Union to submit to careful examination the point of view hereinbefore taken in this most important question and consider the statements given herewith. The revision of the present attitude of the Government of the Union to agree with the views proffered by the Imperial and Royal Government would not only be—according to the conviction of the Imperial and Royal Government—within the scope of the rights and duties of a neutral Government, but also in the direction of those principles prompted by humanity and the love of peace which the United States of America has ever written upon her banner.

The undersigned has the honor, &c.
BURIAN.

The American Reply

The Secretary of State to Ambassador Penfield

Department of State,
Washington, D. C., Aug. 12, 1915.

Please present a note to the Royal Foreign Office in reply to its note of June 29 in the following sense:

The Government of the United States has given careful consideration to the statement of the Imperial and Royal Government in regard to the exportation of arms and ammunition from the United States to the countries at war with Austria-Hungary and Germany. The Government of the United States notes with satisfaction the recognition by the Imperial and Royal Government of the undoubtedly fact that its attitude with regard to the exportation of arms and ammunition from the United States is prompted by its intention to "maintain the strictest neutrality and to conform to the letter of the provisions of international treaties," but is surprised to find the Imperial and Royal Government implying that the observance of the strict principles of the law under the conditions which have developed in the present war is insufficient, and asserting that this Government should go beyond the long-recognized rules governing such traffic by neutrals and adopt measures to "maintain an attitude of strict parity with respect to both belligerent parties."

To this assertion of an obligation to change or modify the rules of international usage on account of special conditions, the Government of the United States cannot accede. The recognition of an obligation of this sort, unknown to the international practice of the past, would impose upon every neutral nation a duty to sit in judgment on the progress of a war and to restrict its commercial intercourse with a belligerent whose naval successes prevented the neutral from trade with the enemy. The contention of the Imperial and Royal Government appears to be that the advantages gained to a belligerent by its superiority on the sea should be equalized by the neutral powers by the estab-

lishment of a system of non-intercourse with the victor. The Imperial and Royal Government confines its comments to arms and ammunition, but, if the principle for which it contends is sound, it should apply with equal force to all articles of contraband. A belligerent controlling the high seas might possess an ample supply of arms and ammunition, but be in want of food and clothing. On the novel principle that equalization is a neutral duty, neutral nations would be obligated to place an embargo on such articles because one of the belligerents could not obtain them through commercial intercourse.

But if this principle, so strongly urged by the Imperial and Royal Government, should be admitted to obtain by reason of the superiority of a belligerent at sea, ought it not to operate equally as to a belligerent superior on land? Applying this theory of equalization, a belligerent who lacks the necessary munitions to contend successfully on land ought to be permitted to purchase them from neutrals, while a belligerent with an abundance of war stores or with the power to produce them should be debarred from such traffic.

Manifestly the idea of strict neutrality now advanced by the Imperial and Royal Government would involve a neutral nation in a mass of perplexities which would obscure the whole field of international obligation, produce economic confusion and deprive all commerce and industry of legitimate fields of enterprise, already heavily burdened by the unavoidable restriction of war.

In this connection it is pertinent to direct the attention of the Imperial and Royal Government to the fact that Austria-Hungary and Germany, particularly the latter, have during the years preceding the present European war produced a great surplus of arms and ammunition which they sold throughout the world, and especially to belligerents. Never during that period did either of them

suggest or apply the principle now advocated by the Imperial and Royal Government.

During the Boer War between Great Britain and the South African republics the patrol of the coasts of neighboring neutral colonies by British naval vessels prevented arms and ammunition reaching the Transvaal or the Orange Free State. The allied republics were in a situation almost identical in that respect with that in which Austria-Hungary and Germany find themselves at the present time. Yet, in spite of the commercial isolation of one belligerent, Germany sold to Great Britain, the other belligerent, hundreds of thousands of kilos of explosives, gunpowder, cartridges, shot, and weapons; and it is known that Austria-Hungary also sold similar munitions to the same purchaser, though in smaller quantities. While, as compared with the present war, the quantities sold were small (a table of the sales is appended) the principle of neutrality involved was the same. If at that time Austria-Hungary and her present ally had refused to sell arms and ammunition to Great Britain on the ground that to do so would violate the spirit of strict neutrality, the Imperial and Royal Government might with greater consistency and greater force urge its present contention.

It might be further so pointed out that during the Crimean war large quantities of arms and military stores were furnished to Russia by Prussian manufacturers; that during the recent war between Turkey and Italy, as this Government is advised, arms and ammunition were furnished to the Ottoman Government by Germany; and that during the Balkan wars the belligerents were supplied with munitions by both Austria-Hungary and Germany. While these latter cases are not analogous, as is the case of the South African war, to the situation of Austria-Hungary and Germany in the present war, they nevertheless clearly indicate the long-established practice of the two empires in the matter of trade in war supplies.

In view of the foregoing statements, this Government is reluctant to believe that the Imperial and Royal Govern-

ment will ascribe to the United States a lack of impartial neutrality in continuing its legitimate trade in all kinds of supplies used to render the armed forces of a belligerent efficient, even though the circumstances of the present war prevent Austria-Hungary from obtaining such supplies from the markets of the United States, which have been and remain, so far as the action and policy of this Government are concerned, open to all belligerents alike.

But, in addition to the question of principle, there is a practical and substantial reason why the Government of the United States has from the foundation of the Republic to the present time advocated and practiced unrestricted trade in arms and military supplies. It has never been the policy of this country to maintain in time of peace a large military establishment or stores of arms and ammunition sufficient to repel invasion by a well equipped and powerful enemy. It has desired to remain at peace with all nations and to avoid any appearance of menacing such peace by the threat of its armies and navies. In consequence of this standing policy the United States would, in the event of attack by a foreign power, be at the outset of the war seriously, if not fatally, embarrassed by the lack of arms and ammunition and by the means to produce them in sufficient quantities to supply the requirements of national defense. The United States has always depended upon the right and power to purchase arms and ammunition from neutral nations in case of foreign attack. This right, which it claims for itself, it cannot deny to others.

A nation whose principle and policy it is to rely upon international obligations and international justice to preserve its political and territorial integrity might become the prey of an aggressive nation whose policy and practice it is to increase its military strength during times of peace with the design of conquest, unless the nation attacked can, after war had been declared, go into the markets of the world and purchase the means to defend itself against the aggressor.

The general adoption by the nations of the world of the theory that neutral

powers ought to prohibit the sale of arms and ammunition to belligerents would compel every nation to have in readiness at all times sufficient munitions of war to meet any emergency which might arise, and to erect and maintain establishments for the manufacture of arms and ammunition sufficient to supply the needs of its military and naval forces throughout the progress of a war. Manifestly the application of this theory would result in every nation becoming an armed camp, ready to resist aggression and tempted to employ force in asserting its rights rather than appeal to reason and justice for the settlement of international disputes.

Perceiving, as it does, that the adoption of the principle that it is the duty of a neutral to prohibit the sale of arms and ammunition to a belligerent during the progress of a war would inevitably give the advantage to the belligerent which had encouraged the manufacture of munitions in time of peace, and which had laid in vast stores of arms and ammunition in anticipation of war, the Government of the United States is convinced that the adoption of the theory would force militarism on the world and work against the universal peace which is the desire and purpose of all nations with one another.

The Government of the United States, in the foregoing discussion of the practical reason why it has advocated and practiced trade in munitions of war, wishes to be understood as speaking with no thought of expressing or implying any judgment with regard to the circumstances of the present war, but as merely putting very frankly the argument in this matter which has been conclusive in determining the policy of the United States.

While the practice of nations, so well illustrated by the practice of Austria-Hungary and Germany during the South African war, and the manifest evil which would result from a change of the practice, render compliance with the suggestions of the Imperial and Royal Government out of the question, certain assertions appearing in the Austro-Hungarian statement as grounds for its contentions

cannot be passed over without comment. These assertions are substantially as follows:

(1) That the exportation of arms and ammunition from the United States to belligerents contravenes the preamble of The Hague Convention, No. 13, of 1907;

(2) That it is consistent with the refusal of this Government to allow delivery of supplies to vessels of war on the high seas;

(3) That "according to all authorities on international law, who concern themselves more properly with the question," exportation should be prevented "when this traffic assumes such a form of such dimensions that the neutrality of a nation becomes involved thereby."

As to the assertion that the exportation of arms and ammunition contravenes the preamble of The Hague Convention, No. 13, of 1907, this Government presumes that reference is made to the last paragraph of the preamble, which is as follows:

"Seeing that in this category of ideas these rules should not in principle be altered in the course of the war by a neutral power except in a case where experience has shown the necessity for such change for the protection of the rights of that power."

Manifestly, the only ground to change the rules laid down by the convention, one of which, it should be noted, explicitly declares that a neutral is not bound to prohibit the exportation of contraband of war, is the necessity of a neutral power to do so in order to protect its own rights. The right and duty to determine when this necessity exists rests with the neutral, not with a belligerent. It is discretionary, not mandatory. If a neutral power does not avail itself of the right, a belligerent is not privileged to complain, for in doing so it would be in the position of declaring to the neutral power what is necessary to protect that power's own rights. The Imperial and Royal Government cannot but perceive that a complaint of this nature would invite just rebuke.

With reference to the asserted inconsistency of the course adopted by this Government in relation to the exporta-



GRAND DUKE ALEXIS

Son of the Czar and Heir Apparent of Russia. His Eleventh Birthday
Was Celebrated on August 12
(Photo from Bain News Service)



QUEEN MARGHERITA OF ITALY
She is the Widow of King Humbert and Mother of King Victor Emmanuel

tion of arms and ammunition and that followed in not allowing supplies to be taken from its ports to ships of war on the high seas, it is only necessary to point out that the prohibition of supplies to ships of war rests upon the principle that a neutral power must not permit its territory to become a naval base for either belligerent. A warship may, under certain restrictions, obtain fuel and supplies in a neutral port once in three months. To permit merchant vessels acting as tenders to carry supplies more often than three months and in unlimited amount would defeat the purpose of the rule and might constitute the neutral territory a naval base. Furthermore, this Government is unaware that any Austro-Hungarian ship of war has sought to obtain supplies from a port in the United States, either directly or indirectly. The subject has, however, already been discussed with the Imperial German Government, to which the position of this Government was fully set forth Dec. 24, 1914.

In view of the positive assertion in the statement of the Imperial and Royal Government as to the unanimity of the opinions of text writers as to the exportation of contraband being unneutral, this Government has caused a careful examination of the principal authorities on international law to be made. As a result of this examination it has come to the conclusion that the Imperial and Royal Government has been misled and has inadvertently made an erroneous

assertion. Less than one-fifth of the authorities consulted advocate unreservedly the prohibition of the export of contraband. Several of those who constitute this minority admit that the practice of nations has been otherwise. It may not be inopportune to direct particular attention to the declaration of the German authority, Paul Einicke, who states that, at the beginning of a war, belligerents have never remonstrated against the enactment of prohibitions on trade in contraband, but adds "that such prohibitions may be considered as violation of neutrality, or at least as unfriendly acts, if they are enacted during a war with the purpose to close unexpectedly the sources of supply to a party which heretofore had relied on them."

The Government of the United States deems it unnecessary to extend further at the present time a consideration of the statement of the Austro-Hungarian Government. The principles of international law, the practice of nations, the national safety of the United States and other nations without great military and naval establishments, the prevention of increased armies and navies, the adoption of peaceful methods for the adjustment of international differences, and, finally, neutrality itself are opposed to the prohibition by a neutral nation of the exportation of arms, ammunition or other munitions of war to belligerent powers during the progress of the war.

LANSING.



Alleged German Attempt to Get American Munitions

Story of a Contract Made by German Agents in the United States

In its issues beginning Aug. 15, The New York World published alleged letters and reports of German agents and officials in this country and Germany, to show that the German propaganda in the United States was influenced by cash from Germany to turn American public opinion in Germany's favor; that this cash had been supplied freely, though secretly, by the German Government; that its expenditure had been directly supervised by Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg, the German Chancellor; Count Johan von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador at Washington, and other German officials in high places, and that German agents had fomented strikes in the munition factories of New England, attempting at the same time to corner all the liquid chlorine manufactured in this country, in order to shut off from the Allies the supply of poison gas of the nature of that already used by the German armies. The most striking chapter of the correspondence purported to show that Germany itself had been secretly planning to secure munitions from the United States, although protesting, with Austria, against the shipment of munitions to enemy countries since the beginning of the war.

In this correspondence is published the alleged contract, reproduced below, which relates to the financing of the Bridgeport Projectile Company, at Bridgeport, Conn., by Hugo Schmidt, the Washington agent of the Deutsche Bank of Berlin, assigned, as alleged, to assist General Financial Agent Albert at New York in the handling of sums of money turned over to Mr. Albert by the Imperial German Government.

MEMORANDUM OF AMERICAN ARMS CONTRACT ALLEGED TO HAVE BEEN MADE BY GERMANY

[From The New York World, Aug. 17, 1915.]

THE BRIDGEPORT PROJECTILE COMPANY.

As of June 30, 1915.

STATUS OF CONTRACT BETWEEN A. & B.

Article I. (a) Specifications—A. [Bridgeport Projectile Company] advised B., [Hugo Schmidt for the German Government,] under date of June 7, that, not having heard from him with regard to any change in specifications, he has ordered tools and machinery to suit the manufacture of shrapnel cases in accordance with the specifications, attached to the contract, this being necessary in order to enable him to comply with the terms of delivery.

Thus the first cases will be manufactured under United States Government specifications, and A. proposes to make an arrangement with the Army and Navy Departments at Washington that—if no

firm order from the United States Government can be secured by the time that the manufacturing is to commence—the first cases shall be manufactured under the inspection of United States Government officials and shall be tested by them, so that, upon subsequently securing any orders from the United States Government, immediate delivery may be made.

This has the advantage of bringing the B. P. Co. prominently before the United States Government officials, and overtures in that direction, made by A. personally at Washington, were received with great satisfaction.

(e) Factory—The construction of the factory is proceeding most satisfactorily, of which I convinced myself personally on a recent visit to Bridgeport.

The most important buildings, forge, and machine shops are almost under roof; the other buildings are fairly

under way; presses, machinery, and all other material are being promptly assembled, and there is every indication that deliveries will commence as provided in the contract, i. e., on Sept. 1, 1915.

Hereto attached is a plan of the B. P. Co.'s grounds, giving floor outlines of the various buildings and indicating the railway tracks leading into the factory for the delivery of raw materials and fuel and for the loading of the product directly from and to railway cars.

Article II. (a) Powder—Attached to my report of May 31 was A.'s letter to B.'s assignee (Exhibit K) of May 17, advising his compliance with provisions of this section of Article II. by contracting for the output of Aetna's smokeless powder to Dec. 31, 1915, and asking for B.'s letter of release, which until date has not been forthcoming. I recommend that it be sent.

The contract of sale of 1,000,000 pounds of powder to the Spanish Government is not yet formally signed. The delay is caused by the fact that the Official Spanish War Commission had to await the arrival of an expert from Spain, who was to pass on the specifications of the powder. He has arrived and all his objections to our own specifications have now been overcome and his recommendations have been accepted by Aetna, who have agreed to manufacture a powder to meet the Spanish requirements.

Now the legal adviser of the Official Spanish War Commission, Mr. Louis Hess of 42 Broadway, after the commission advised him that the contract was now in order and could be drawn up, writes at length and raises innumerable insignificant legally technical objections to the form of contract, submitted to him by me, and he fills an eight-page letter with reforms to the same. I have advised him in reply that his objections and suggested reforms cannot be considered, since my offer to the commission was based on our own contracts with Aetna and that my offer was accepted by the commission on such basis, and that we must insist on the contract being carried out accordingly. I hope he will

now withdraw his objections and that final contract will be signed soon.

(b) Antimony—A. secured offers of antimony during May as per Exhibit L, attached to report of May 31, varying in prices from 30 to 25 cents per pound.

One further offer has been secured since, the price being 36½ cents, which indicates an upward tendency in the price of this metal.

According to this section of the contract, A. is to wait instructions from B. in case that he is to purchase antimony.

Article III. Presses—A. advised B. under date of May 17 (see Exhibit M of report May 31) that 534 hydraulic presses, suitable or necessary for the manufacture of shells of calibre 2.95 inches to 4.8 inches, had been contracted for, mostly with privilege of cancellation of part of the orders against payment of an indemnity.

There are actually being manufactured, and there will be delivered to A., 132 presses, the price of which aggregates \$417,550.

There have been canceled until date 392 presses at an aggregate cost of indemnity of \$238,945.64.

As provided for in the agreement, "all contracts of purchase between A. and the builders" have been "approved" by me in representation of B., but, as was anticipated during the discussions between A. and B. prior to the final drawing up of the agreement, it has been impossible to contractually "bind" such builders to exclusive manufacture for A., since that would be contrary to prevailing laws, implicating both contracting parties; furthermore, that question proved very delicate and required a good deal of diplomacy in dealing with the manufacturers, so as to avoid suspicion.

A fact is that A. succeeded in having all the builders bound to him, most of same by some legally non-committal phrase in the contracts, and one, a personal friend of A., by simple word.

By the above-mentioned payments of indemnity for the cancellation of orders the builders are not yet all bound to us until Jan. 1, 1916, as the contract between A. and B. requires, because it

was found in many cases impolitic for fear of arousing the builders' suspicions, and, furthermore, it would become a useless expenditure should the cause for the action cease to exist prior to Jan. 1, 1916.

There are three important builders in this category; they are bound to us at present until Sept. 20, Oct. 15, and Dec. 1, respectively, and, should it later be found expedient to commit them to us until Jan. 1, 1916, it would cause an additional expenditure for indemnity of \$60,730, provided we shall be able to settle on the same basis as heretofore.

The total expenditure for account of presses would therefore be:

For presses manufactured.....	\$417,550.00
For indemnity paid till date....	238,945.64
For indemnity still payable.....	60,730.00

Or \$717,225.64
I. e., very nearly the amount of \$720,000 provided for in the agreement.

Occasionally A. receives offers of presses from hitherto unknown manufacturers, who have their attention called to that branch of machine building by the newspapers. Every one of such offers is thoroughly investigated by A., usually by a personal visit to the factory of the prospective builder, to ascertain his ability to construct presses. Until date no such concern has demonstrated such ability to satisfaction; but further offers will be likewise investigated and acted upon when considered necessary.

From all the above details is seen that A. is in spirit fully complying with the provisions of Article III. and, in order to

avoid any possibility of later legal complications, in case that B. should ever reassign the agreement (which is his privilege as per Article VIII.) to some party not acquainted with the creation and development of the B. P. Co., he is most anxious to receive from B. a written acknowledgment thereof, and I consistently recommend that such be done.

FINANCES.

The statement, or finance program, submitted with my report of May 31 (Exhibit N) has not suffered any changes since that date.

GENERAL.

There exists no doubt as to the efficiency and splendid results as regards the purposes for which the B. P. Co. was created.

By the purchases of all the powder available in the United States up to Jan. 1, 1916, all the prospective contractors for complete shrapnel rounds who applied to Aetna for powder and were advised by them that the B. P. Co. was the only concern that had powder to furnish (the only other manufacturers—the du Pont Company—having all their output contracted for into 1916) have applied to the B. P. Co. for bids on complete shrapnel rounds, and such requests have come from representatives of all the allied nations. * * *

Respectfully submitted,

CARL HEYNAN.

Submitted to Dr. H. F. Albert, Captain F. von Papen, N. R. Lindheim, Esq.



American Military Preparedness

The Few Who Are Trained of Seventeen Millions of Able Men

The article presented below appeared in THE NEW YORK TIMES of Aug. 1, 1915.

A REPRESENTATIVE of THE NEW YORK TIMES was permitted recently to read some of the Government reports on the condition of the militia. The result was startling. In more than a score of States there is no field artillery of any sort and in the whole country there are fewer than forty officers of ordnance. In thirty-five States there are no organizations trained for coast artillery, twenty-four have no cavalry, a large majority are without signal troops, while the whole force of organized engineers, officers, and men totals less than 1,500 for the entire country. One State, Nevada, is without militia organizations of any kind.

In the table that follows, which gives the number of officers and enlisted men of all arms in the National Guard, the figures are from regular army Inspectors, and appear in the most recent report of the Division of Militia Affairs:

State.	Of'c'rs.	Men.	State.	Of'c'rs.	Men.
Alabama ..	163	2,000	Montana ..	40	636
Alabama ..	163	2,000	Nebraska ..	132	1,384
Arkansas ..	109	1,402	Nevada
California ..	252	3,604	New Hamp. ..	90	1,280
Colorado ..	122	1,933	New Jersey ..	304	4,014
Connecticut ..	177	2,511	New Mexico ..	57	910
Delaware ..	41	465	New York ..	974	15,591
Dist. of Col. ..	124	1,721	N. Carolina ..	209	2,367
Florida ..	73	1,075	N. Dakota ..	60	679
Georgia ..	225	2,490	Ohio ..	490	5,637
Hawaii ..	56	858	Oklahoma ..	77	1,330
Idaho ..	58	839	Oregon ..	100	1,401
Illinois ..	508	5,447	Penn. ..	745	10,190
Indiana ..	169	2,109	Rhode Isl. ..	96	1,303
Iowa ..	217	3,014	So. Car. ..	156	1,794
Kansas ..	132	1,720	So. Dakota. ..	68	873
Kentucky ..	164	2,210	Tennessee ..	117	1,798
Louisiana ..	65	1,009	Texas ..	192	2,731
Maine ..	108	1,404	Utah ..	29	419
Maryland ..	157	1,986	Vermont ..	75	817
Mass. ..	424	5,369	Virginia ..	206	2,606
Michigan ..	189	2,478	Washington ..	88	1,312
Minnesota ..	220	3,243	West Va. ..	104	1,517
Mississippi ..	94	990	Wisconsin ..	193	2,931
Missouri ..	244	3,840	Wyoming ..	54	760
<hr/>					
Total ..		8,792	119,251		

In the above total is included thirty-one Generals of the line, ninety-eight officers assigned to duty as Adjutant Generals of brigades and divisions, forty-seven Inspector Generals, and forty-eight Judge Advocates.

The apportionment among the various arms of the service is as follows:

Arms.	Officers.	Men.
Infantry ..	6,328	95,109
Cavalry ..	298	4,642
Field artillery ..	314	5,914
Coast artillery ..	450	7,150
Medical Corps ..	783	3,550
Engineers ..	78	1,246
Quartermaster ..	157	108
Subsistence ..	19	17
Pay ..	10	..
Ordnance ..	59	39
Signal ..	72	1,470
<hr/>		
Total ..	8,792	119,251

All the States, save Nevada, have infantry troops as a matter of course. In field artillery there are twenty-three that have none. Those States are Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming.

Only thirteen States maintain coast artillery organizations, and of the total of coast artillerymen more than half is in New York. In Maine the total of coast artillerymen is thirty. The coast States of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Texas are without coast artillery organizations.

Nearly half of all the National Guard cavalry in the country is in New York and Pennsylvania. The States without cavalry are Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada,

New Mexico, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wyoming. It will be noted that among the States without cavalry are a majority of those in which horsemanship is supposed to be most common, such as Wyoming, Kentucky, Montana, Kansas, and New Mexico.

Of engineering troops more than 1,100 of the 1,324 are in four States—New York with 754, Ohio with 190, Pennsylvania with 123, and Michigan with 100. Of the remaining 225 officers and men Illinois claims four of the officers and 60 men and Oklahoma three officers and 61 enlisted men. Virginia has an engineering strength of three officers, Massachusetts and California two officers each, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Minnesota, Maryland, Iowa, and the District of Columbia one officer each.

The number of men between 18 and 44 fit for military service is approximately 16,500,000, divided among the States as follows:

State.	Men.	State.	Men.
Alabama ...	803,144	Montana	48,076
Arizona	40,776	Nebraska ...	132,380
Arkansas ...	327,387	Nevada	20,000
California ..	393,784	N. Hamp....	41,235
Colorado ...	134,225	New Jersey..	675,805
Connecticut..	156,497	New Mexico.	60,673
Delaware....	32,489	New York...	1,616,481
Dist. of Col...	80,278	N. Carolina...	302,745
Florida	197,183	N. Dakota...	70,771
Georgia	577,678	Ohio	946,856
Hawaii	14,863	Oklahoma ...	321,271
Idaho	33,824	Oregon	136,521
Illinois	1,000,000	Penn.	1,139,526
Indiana	652,351	Rhode Island	138,402
Iowa	288,838	S. Carolina..	217,375
Kansas	386,570	S. Dakota...	70,862
Kentucky ...	342,326	Tennessee ..	376,763
Louisiana ...	339,443	Texas	502,870
Maine	104,819	Utah	40,453
Maryland ...	126,975	Vermont ...	50,878
Mass.	577,618	Virginia ...	327,817
Michigan ...	521,792	Washington..	286,189
Minnesota ..	237,923	West Va. ...	201,334
Mississippi ..	401,220	Wisconsin ..	441,396
Missouri ...	604,034	Wyoming ...	41,730
Total	16,647,347		

The above figures reveal many strange situations. For instance, Alabama is surpassed by only four States in the number of males between 18 and 44 fit for military service, those States being New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois. The 1910 census gave California 200,000 more population than Alabama, yet Alabama reports that she can furnish 400,000 more men than California. Texas, with 1,700,000 more population than Alabama, reports only 500,000 men fit for service, while Massachusetts, with 500,000 less population than Texas, offers 75,000 more men.

Minnesota, with 2,100,000 population, reports only 237,923 possible soldiers, while South Carolina, with only 1,500,000 population, comes within 20,000 of that number. Ohio, whose population is a round million greater than that of Texas, is credited with 450,000 more able men than Texas, but only 150,000 more than Alabama, which has 2,500,000 fewer people.

Mississippi, 1,800,000 population, offers more than 400,000 men, whereas Tennessee, with 2,200,000 population, returns only 376,000. Indiana, with 1,000,000 less population than Texas, reports 160,000 more fit men and 75,000 more than Massachusetts, which has 650,000 more citizens than has Indiana.

Much criticism has been leveled at the War Department because of apparent lack of interest in the militia. It is a fact, however, that never, except when the country was at war, has the Government done more for the National Guard than now. There is no press agent to keep the country informed, but the War Department is in intimate touch with the militia of every State, and now has on detail 133 of its ablest officers, who give all their time to inspection and instruction. Nineteen picked army officers are now on duty in New York.

War and Money

How Will Europe's Policy of Unlimited Liability End?

EUROPE has adopted a financial policy of unlimited liability on account of the war. The war loans of the principal belligerents in one year have amounted to fifteen billion dollars. The cost is tending to rise. It is now estimated to be altogether not less than fifty million dollars a day, of which the share of Great Britain alone is fifteen millions a day. England is the banker, purveyor, and purse bearer of the anti-German allies. She may have muddled nearly everything else at the beginning, but nobody has been heard to criticise her financial skill so far, nor to underestimate the banking aid she has extended to her allies. However, there is a limit even to British credit, and reflecting persons are beginning to wonder how long it can stand so great a strain. If the war continues to the end of March, 1916, the national debt of England will have trebled, and the rate of interest upon it will have advanced from an average of less than $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., with no choice but to rise higher still if the war goes on.

What is beyond?

Will there be any capital left in the world, and, if any, what will it be worth?

Those are questions to which the clairvoyant answer would be of immeasurable importance—only, perhaps, nobody would believe it.

As England must finance the Allies' side of the war, the opinions of English economists are of special interest, and, as one might suppose, they are inconclusive. So far the cost of the war has been met principally by war loans. That puts the settlement off upon posterity. But posterity, loaded too heavily with the principal and interest of a war debt incurred without its consent, might refuse to pay. That would play havoc with capital in the world. The moods of posterity are very uncertain. Partly for this reason and partly because war loans create a flood of fixed securities which

will incumber the exchanges for years to come, English commentators, in the main, agree that it would be better for the adult living to pay a larger proportion of the war's cost out of pocket in the form of taxation.

Edgar Crommond, in an article on the "Economic Position of the Allies," Quarterly Review, (July,) tells why Mr. Lloyd George made the last $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. loan a popular financial operation:

Ample provision has been made to enable the small investor to subscribe; and even the weekly wage earner is enabled to participate in the loan. Strong criticism has been directed against the high rate of interest offered by the Government and the expensive conversion privileges offered to holders of existing Government securities; but the bulk of this criticism may be attributed to the fact that the public are only beginning to appreciate the immense wastage of capital and the cost of the war, and the process of readjustment to the new economic conditions which have been created by the war has begun in earnest.

If people will not save their money and buy war loans they will have to be taxed:

In order to meet the cost of the war it is necessary that our savings should be doubled; and this will mean the exercise of economy to an extent which is not yet fully appreciated by the bulk of the people. The alternative to drastic economy is drastic taxation; and economy is, from all points of view, by far the most satisfactory policy. *The people of Great Britain must strain every nerve to save money, in view of the further taxation, or possibly loans, that may still be necessary.*

Besides what can be produced in England for war consumption, quantities of food and munitions have to be bought abroad, and there arises another problem. England is running into debt with the outside world at the rate of two billion dollars a year. Mr. Crommond asks:

How is this deficiency to be provided? It can be met to some extent by reducing our imports and increasing our exports. It is difficult to see how the latter course can be adopted if we enlist

many more workers or transfer a much larger portion of the workers from commercial production to the production of war munitions. Another possible course is the export of gold; but our stock of the precious metal is not sufficiently great to admit of our adopting this course without grave disadvantages. A third method is to sell British securities abroad. As already stated, our investments in the overseas dominions and in foreign countries have an approximate capital value of £3,904,000,000; and if we could realize only 10 per cent. of these holdings, we should be able to obtain the amount required. Unfortunately, there is only one country where sales can be effected, namely, the United States; and it is not yet clear that the New York money market is in a position to absorb securities on a sufficiently large scale. The final method is the raising of a loan in New York. The great objection to this is its extreme costliness. Money is still as cheap in London as it is in New York; and it is difficult to see how we can raise a great loan there upon terms which will not react unfavorably upon British credit at home. *It should be recognized as a patriotic duty by all classes to limit consumption, and particularly the consumption of foreign manufactures and produce, to the utmost extent possible.*

And beyond, after the war, Mr. Crommond sees the basis of taxation broadened in England, a revenue tariff, and years of rigorous economy.

A writer in *The Edinburgh Review* (July) on "The Outlook for Capital" covers a lot of ground in agreement with Mr. Crommond, and is likewise persuaded that taxation ought to be heavily increased currently; but when he comes to discuss the future he is not so sure of anything, and on the whole inclined to doubt the pessimistic view:

At first sight there does not seem to be any doubt about it. With eight to ten millions [£] of capital spent every day by the belligerent powers, to say nothing of the purely wasteful outlay to which many neutrals are forced by the war, it seems to be as obvious a platitude as ever has been put forward when one says that capital will be, must be, and cannot help being dear for a long time to come. When a huge amount of a thing that is very much wanted is destroyed its price must go up. Economic theory, common sense, and even the laws of mechanics seem to confirm such a proposition, which is so self-evident that one is almost inclined to show the thing happening in a diagram. No one can deny that capital,

even before the war, was very much wanted.

This writer proceeds to be aghast at the rate at which war loans are piling up:

If, then, at the end of the war the world finds itself swamped with a flood of securities that have been created to pay for war, while during the war the productive power of the goods on which all securities must finally be based has been, if anything, lessened, owing to the insufficient outlay on upkeep and the slaying of many of the best of the world's workers, is it possible to doubt that the price of securities will be low, and that consequently what is called the price of capital—the rate of interest paid by the borrower—will be high?

But people are contrary minded, and were perhaps not made to demonstrate the infallibility of economic theory. The writer admits some uneconomic factors:

Some people do * * * in fact affirm that the price of capital will be low, because, they say, mankind will be so exhausted by the war that there will be a long pause in development, no new countries will be opened up, and no one will have the courage to think of using new capital, much less of asking for it from the money markets of the world. Here is the psychological problem that lurks, as it so often does, behind an economic question. And any one who dogmatizes beforehand about the feelings of mankind must have *robur et aes triplex* about his breast. All that can be said with any approach to certainty is that it will take a very long pause to allow all the present flood of securities to be absorbed so far that scarcity reigns in the stock markets and fancy prices begin to be paid for good investments. And it must be remembered that plenty of countries are outside the war zone, and making huge profits out of the needs of the belligerents. Our American cousins will not be tired at the end of the war. They will be straining every nerve and using every dollar of capital that is offered to improve the great economic advantage that the war is giving them.

And there are other psychological questions that affect the outlook for capital. Will the war end in such a way that all the nations want to spend more than ever on armaments, or will the lion lie down with the lamb? Shall we all go back as far as we can to the old habits of self-indulgence and ostentation? Or shall we recognize that no nation can be really great while the mass of its citizens lead lives of unremitting toil and poverty, and that therefore it is our first business to turn the stream of production into fields

in which it brings forth things that are really wanted?

Nobody can be very sure of anything. There are hardly any clues in all economic experience to what will happen in the future. In degree, in ratio, and in magnitude the economic phenomena now taking place are incomparable. Moreover, they are unfinished. Nobody can say how long the war will last, nor, for that matter, how long it can last at the

present rate of destruction. There is really no measure of how much modern people, under the spur of great necessity, can both produce and do without. That is what makes the future of capital so uncertain. If habits of industry and self-denial learned in war continued afterward among several hundred millions of people, the world might have to revise all previous calculations as to the rate at which wealth can be increased.

The Hymn of the Lusitania

Translated from the German by Mrs. Wharton.

In an article on "Peace Insurance by Preparedness Against War," appearing in the Metropolitan Magazine for August, Theodore Roosevelt says: "Mrs. Wharton has sent me the following German poem on the sinking of the Lusitania, with her translation":

The swift sea sucks her death-shriek under
As the great ship reels and leaps asunder.
Crammed taffrail-high with her murderous freight,
Like a straw on the tide she whirls to her fate.

A warship she, though she lacked its coat,
And lustful for lives as none afloat,
A warship, and one of the foe's best workers,
Not penned with her rusting harbor-shirkers.

Now the Flanders guns lack their daily bread,
And shipper and buyer are sick with dread,
For neutral as Uncle Sam may be
Your surest neutral's the deep green sea.

Just one ship sunk, with lives and shell,
And thousands of German gray-coats well!
And for each of her gray-coats, German hate
Would have sunk ten ships with all their freight.

Yea, ten such ships are a paltry fine
For one good life in our fighting line.
Let England ponder the crimson text:

TORPEDO, STRIKE! AND HURRAH FOR THE NEXT!

A Résumé of the Military Operations in Europe

From July 15 to Aug. 15, 1915*

By a Military Expert

A REVIEW of the latest military operations in Europe finds the world's interest more than ever centred in the gigantic campaign in Russia, before which all actions in the various other seats of war have, temporarily at least, dwindled into insignificance.

The middle of July brought the first aim of the Germanic General Staff's strategy in the east—the conquest of Poland—within sight of its realization. The final stage of the campaign for this important Russian province was ushered in by the breaking of the Russian right wing protecting Warsaw and the Vistula line from the north of Przasnysz on July 15. The force of the attack threw the entire Russian front between Zjechanow and the Omulev River back on the Narew line, and its suddenness took the garrisons of Pultusk and Ostrolenka by surprise and frustrated their attempt to resist. With the capture of these two strongholds the main breadline of the Russian front along and west of the Vistula, the Warsaw-Bialystok-Petrograd railroad, was exposed to the German attack and the fall of the Polish capital sealed.

Thus Field Marshal von Hindenburg's victory on the Narew front necessitated the gradual withdrawal of the Russian Josefow- (about forty miles south of Ivangorod) Jastrzhomb- (fifteen miles southwest of Radom) Tomaschew-Rawka and Bzura line behind the Vistula between Ivangorod and Novo Georgievsk. On the front from Novo Georgievsk to Goworowa and Lomza the German drive, after having forced all the Narew crossings between Pultusk and Ostrolenka,

*For the chronology covering this period, see Page 1221 of this issue.

was temporarily checked, the Russians, by means of their direct Lubin-Siedlce-Ostrolenka railroad, shifting strong reserves from their southern front (between Josefow on the Vistula and the Bug, east of Grubeschow) to the points of immediate danger in the north. The consequence was that Archduke Joseph Ferdinand's and Field Marshal von Mackensen's armies, which had been held back and at times even forced to yield ground in the first half of July, in the latter part of the month were able to resume their northward advance. Thus the weakening of the Russian southern wing meant the sacrifice of the important Ivangorod-Lublin-Chelm railroad. Great as it was, it had to be made in order to save the northern army from being trapped. The purpose, the protection of the Warsaw-Bialystok road until the greater part of the army of Warsaw could be moved over it to the Grodno-Bialystok-Brest-Litovsk front, is now sure to have been accomplished, at least as far northeast as Malkin. Only a small part of this army, that which clung to Novo Georgievsk and the westernmost part of the Narew, as far as its conflux with the Bug, even after the Bavarians had crossed over the Vistula to Praga and after the German army from Pultusk had reached Serozk, was trapped in the region between the Vistula (from Novo Georgievsk to Warsaw) and the Narew, (from Novo Georgievsk to Serozk.)

The Russian line east of Serozk, between that town and the region south of Goworowa, succeeded in tearing itself from the Teutonic grip, gradually changing from a northwesterly front to one facing almost direct west, joining hands in the region southwest of Wyschkow with the troops retreating from War-

saw. Thus the second week of August saw the Russians continuing their eastward retirement on a line running approximately from Novo Minsk over Wyschkow to Wonsewo, (about ten miles northwest of Ostrow,) and from there to Lomza. The pivoting point of the retreating line was the fortress of Osso-wetz, northeast of Lomza.

By the 11th of August it seemed reasonably certain that the Russian Army would reach its second line of defense, the Kovno-Ossowetz-Bialystok-Brest-Litovsk line, and later the Kovno-Grodno-Bialystok-Brest-Litovsk line, comparatively unimpaired, except for the troops cornered around Novo Georgievsk, when, on Aug. 12, Field Marshal von Hindenburg's left-wing armies under Generals von Scholz and von Gallwitz stormed Lomza and the bridgehead at Wizna, east of the fortress, thereby breaking the Russian line of retreat and endangering the Warsaw-Bialystok road, northeast of Malkin.

As yet up to Aug. 14, no news of an envelopment of any part of the Russian army southeast of Lomza has been received, and it is still possible that the Muscovites will reach their second line of defense in spite of the débâcle at Lomza, but their position nevertheless seems precarious, and much, if not all, depends on how near the shelter of the Ossowetz - Bialystok - Brest - Litovsk line was the retiring Russian Army at the time the Teutons broke through Lomza. If it was still in the region of Ostrow and the Bug, from Malkin southeastward, its escape might yet prove not to have been quite as successful as is generally assumed.

While thus the original Russian Narew and Bzura-Rawka armies were fighting their way back over the Warsaw-Bialystok and the Novo Minsk-Siedlce railroads to reach their second line of defense, the armies withdrawn from the region south of the Pilica were struggling to make good their escape to this same line along the only remaining road from Ivangorod to Lukow and Brest-Litovsk, and have apparently succeeded. The Russian strategy here was identically the same as in the north. The retreat over

the Ivangorod-Lukow-Brest-Litovsk road was effected under the protection of the flanking Russian left wing. The latter had meanwhile gradually given way before Austro-German attacks, and by Aug. 6 had established itself along the lower Wieprz, as far as Lubartow, stretching from there through the region north and northeast of Lentschna to the Bug, northeast of Chelm. Assuming the selfsame manoeuvre as the flanking army on the Narew the Russian flanking army at the Wieprz gradually changed its front, in this instance from a southwesterly direction to an almost westerly one. From Aug. 9 on it gradually began withdrawing its right wing northeastward in conjunction with the retirement of the army retreating from Ivangorod and north of the fortress. The front further east followed gradually.

By Aug. 14 the entire southern wing of the Russian Army had retreated to a line extending from Wlodowa over Radin and Lukow toward Siedlce, but not until the army of Ivangorod and that north of the fortress, with the exception of some 10,000 men, 8 cannon, and 20 machine guns taken when the fortress was stormed, had made good its escape. This is plainly indicated by the report that it was the army of General von Woerisch, advancing from Ivangorod, which took Lukow, and that of Prince Leopold of Bavaria, advancing from Warsaw and south of that city, which took Siedlce, but not the army of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, advancing from the south.

The second part of August thus finds the Teutonic battle front closing in on the Kovno-Ossowetz - Bialystok-Brest-Litovsk line advancing on a front forming a semi-circle from Wladow over Radin-Siedlce-Malkin-Wiznitz to Ossowetz. Whether or not greater parts of the Russian Narew army (outside of the troops cut off at Novo Georgievsk) will be captured in consequence of the taking of Lomza on Aug. 12, the next few days will reveal. So far the total of the German booty since the fall of Warsaw has been taken in groups mostly from enemy rear guards and amounts today, as reported, to approximately 35,000 men, 12 guns, and 40 machine guns. Irrespective though of

the yet possible capture of greater Russian units it must be admitted that the retreat of Grand Duke Nicholas's army was carried out in a manner that deserves admiration from friend and foe alike.

Simultaneously with the struggle around the Ossowetz-Brest-Litovsk line, two important campaigns are being waged on the extreme southern and northern wings flanking the second Russian defensive line. In the south the Russian flanking protection is established through the fortified line extending from the lake region (about forty-five miles south of Brest-Litovsk) over Luboml (thirty miles west of Kovel) to the fortresses of Luzk and Rowno. The advance of General von Mackensen's extreme right wing on Vladimir-Wolynski and the fighting for the Bug crossing at Dorogusk (about ten miles west of Luboml) strongly indicate the coming of extended operations against the southern Russian flanking position. Their first object will be Kovel and the road from there to Brest-Litovsk.

Aside from Kovel's importance for operations against Brest-Litovsk from the southeast the possession of that town by the Teutons would also mean the severance of all direct communications between the Russian Galician armies, established along the banks of the Dniester, Zlota Lipa, and upper Bug Rivers, and those operating in Wolhynia and north of that province. Threatening Luzk and Rovno from the flank and the rear, the advance on Kovel would thus, simultaneously with exposing Brest-Litovsk to attack from the rear, force the evacuation of Eastern Galicia by the Russians, to avoid their being cut off from Kiev, the base of operations of all Russian armies south of the Kiev-Kovel line.

While consequently the operations against the Southern Russian flanking position are threatening two entirely different groups of armies alike, all movements against the Russian northern flank, extending from Ossowetz, or in case of the abandonment of that fortress, from Grodno, along the Niemen to Kovno, and from there through the region southeast of Ponevyezh to that west of Jacobstadt toward the Dwina, are simply

directed against the one main breadline supplying the new Russian defensive line—the Wilna-Dunaburg-Petrograd railroad. If the Teutons here can break the wall protecting it, the Grodno-Brest-Litovsk line will become untenable.

It is in realization of this fact that the Russians have lately made the most desperate efforts to resume the offensive in this northeastern seat of war in order to drive back the menacing projection of the northern Germanic flank. The latter on its part is protected in its extreme left by a flanking army advancing on Riga parallel to the Aa River front as far south as the region southwest of Friedrichstadt. It is against this army that the Russians have launched their main attack. On the 11th of August they succeeded in driving it back over the Aa River, southwest of Mitau. A further advance would have brought the attacking forces into the rear of the German Kovno-Dunaburg front, and would have placed it in a precarious position. Simultaneously with their attack south of Riga the Russians began to press back the German front in the section west of Jacobstadt and southwest of Ponevyezh. But already on the 14th the Russian advance was everywhere checked, and on the 15th Berlin reported the "developments of new battles," (the German term indicating the coming of a vigorous offensive movement) on the entire Dunaburg-Kovno front, and progress at the latter fortress, commanding the most direct and easiest approach to the Bialystok-Petrograd railroad at Vilna.

At the same time come reports of the evacuation of Bialystok and Vilna by their civil population and of Riga by the British authorities there. They are boding ill for the Czar's cause.

While this gigantic struggle has been going on, little, if any, fighting of importance has taken place in France and West Flanders during the last four weeks. Worthy of note are only the following three actions: The third week of July found the French launching an energetic offensive in the Vosges, where they succeeded in pushing their lines about half a mile further west and northwest along the valley of the Fecht. In the region

of Münster, however, by the end of July they were definitely checked in their attempt to extend their foothold in Alsace.

The second action, taking place in the Argonne, was begun early in August on German initiative, the Crown Prince forcing his front between Four de Paris and Varennes forward a little less than a mile, and in co-operation with this offensive pressing the French by a sharp attack southeast of Verdun from the region of Les Eparges, the object of both movements being to draw tighter the semi-circle around Verdun, closing in on the fortress from the northwest and the southeast. The movement in this seat of war may possibly be regarded as preparing for a more vigorous campaign here after that in Russia has been brought to a close, and it may also be of moral influence, giving evidence of the great German strength, making possible the carrying on of an offensive on two fronts simultaneously, but the actual results attained around Verdun in the last four weeks are negligible.

The third scene of hard fighting was in West Flanders in the region of Hooge, (due west of Ypres,) where the Germans in the first days of August delivered a vigorous surprise attack, driving the British from the village and taking several of their trenches. But already on Aug. 10 the British launched their counterattack, which regained Hooge and their trenches with the exception of those south of the village.

Since Aug. 10 the situation here, too, has again been deadlocked, as all along the rest of the western front.

On the Austro-Italian front the first general Italian offensive on the Austrian positions during June had had for its object Garizia, the key to Trieste. The principal attacks had been directed against the Austrian position at Plava dominating the approach to the city from the north, and that at Doberdo, flanking Gorizia to the south. Simultaneously vigorous frontal attacks also had been launched against the bridgehead at Gorizia. By the end of June all these assaults

had seemed insufficient. A reorganization of the Italian attacking forces took place and July 15 marked the beginning of the second big offensive. This time the main onslaught to break the Austrian Isonzo front was apparently directed further north toward the region of Marlborghetto and Tolmino, its object being the valleys of the Drave and Save, east and southeast of Tarvis, the possession of which would cut the entire Austrian Isonzo front off from all direct communication with Vienna and the northeast generally. The attacks on the Plateau of Doberdo and the position near Canale during the first week of August are therefore more in the nature of feint offensives.

On Aug. 14 came the report from the Italian General Staff that "pending consolidation of positions taken" no new attacks would be made. In view of the fact that the Austrian front was then nowhere broken, this report can but mean an admission that the second big Italian offensive on the Isonzo front has suffered the fate of the first.

The Italian operations on the Tyrolean frontier, where the early part of August has witnessed fighting principally in the region of Condino, to the southeast of Roverto, and in the Cadore Mountains, are merely of a defensive character, aiming purely at frustrating Austrian counterattacks from the north, menacing the rear of the Italian operations on the Isonzo.

Thus, as in France, the middle of August finds the situation on the Austro-Italian front temporarily deadlocked.

In the Dardanelles and on the Serbian frontier the situation is likewise unchanged since July 15. In the former field of operations the Allies have landed additional troops, and have again assumed a vigorous offensive, but the results have yet to be reported. It would appear, of course, that the recent allied activity on Gallipoli is a political move—a bid for support from the Balkan States, on whose possible help the allied powers seem to have high hopes.

A Crisis in the Balkans

Allied Powers' Attempt to Reorganize the Balkan League*

In an Associated Press dispatch from London dated Aug. 14, 1915, appeared the following summary account of the efforts made by the Quadruple Entente to bring to its side in the war the united force of the Balkan peoples:

AFFAIRS in the Balkans are approaching a crisis. While diplomatic negotiations are proceeding in an effort to induce States still neutral to cast their lot with one side or the other, the troops of the central powers massed on the Balkan frontiers are planning, it is believed, to force a way through to relieve Turkey, who is believed to be badly in need of shells.

The concentration of these troops, which has been followed by an artillery attack on Serbian positions, is equally a menace to Rumania, which again has refused to permit shells to pass through her territory to Turkey. The Rumanian Army is already partly mobilized, and four new divisions of reserves have been called out.

Bulgaria has as yet made no move while awaiting the reply of the Quadruple Entente to her demand that Serbia and Greece concede Macedonia to her in return for her military support. This

answer probably will be forthcoming after the meeting of the Greek and Serbian Parliaments next week.

While the Serbians point out what they consider the unfairness of the Bulgarian demand, they show an inclination to make some concessions to obtain the support of their former ally.

Greece is more firm in her refusal, but it is believed here that there may be a change in her policy when former Premier Venizelos returns to power, although he has a strong pro-German party opposed to him, and, according to a telegram from Berlin tonight, King Constantine will offer him the Premiership only on the understanding that strict neutrality shall be maintained. This was the point upon which the King and M. Venizelos disagreed when a new Cabinet was appointed and Parliament was dissolved.

Inasmuch as M. Venizelos was supported by the people at a general election, it was thought the King might fall into line, but the dispatch from Berlin indicates that he has not changed his views. Should Bulgaria attack Serbia, however, Greece is bound by treaty obligations to support Serbia as her ally.

Will the Attempt Succeed?

By Adamantios Th. Polyzoides

Editor of The New York Daily Greek Atlantis.

Europe, and especially the powers constituting today the Quadruple Entente, committed the most unpardonable blunder when at the close of the first Balkan war, in May, 1913, they tore asunder the Balkan League, which such men as Eleutherios Venizelos for Greece, Nicholas Pashitch for Serbia, and Ivan Gueshoff for Bulgaria took the pains of forming, with the aim of doing away with the Turk in Europe.

Today Germany, looking over the later failures of her diplomacy, cannot but give due credit to the men who succeeded in breaking the Balkan League, thus making it possible for Turkey to take once more the field at a time when, had things gone otherwise, she would already be dead and buried.

For Germany to keep the Balkan States neutral when the partition of the Ottoman Empire is well nigh at hand



Map of the Balkan States and Austria-Hungary.

means something more than a diplomatic success. It means her victory against Russia, and may mean more if the strait remains closed and Serbia open to a new invasion. And for this reason those who place the key to the solution of the European war in the Balkans are only too well on the right side.

This in large part explains the recent activity on the part of the Allies of the Entente in their efforts to reconstruct the Balkan League, and to throw its weight in the balance against the coalition of the three empires. But to form a Balkan alliance is more difficult than to destroy it, and the Entente powers have felt this difficulty since they first approached the Balkan statesmen with the object of reconciling the differences which arose after the disruption of the league in 1913. The obstacles to such an effort were, and are, still great; yet greater has been the activity of the German Foreign Office in the Balkan capitals, where every means was used in order to render any rapprochement between the Balkan peoples impossible.

Mutual distrust has always been characteristic of these nationalities, and racial hatred is easily awakened when adroitly manipulated by ingenious outsiders. It must be said that the Balkan peoples have been too long under the influences of outsiders if they do not see their position in the light of their common interests. Germany, therefore, has a very fertile ground to work on when it comes to set up Bulgar against Greek and Rumanian against Serbian, and all three against Bulgar; while Germany may cite any time to the Balkan States the different cases in which the Entente powers have not been so pro-Balkan as to sacrifice an iota of their particular interests in favor of their so-called protégés.

To counterpoise the work of the Germans the Allies must act in such a way as to convince the Balkans that only by fighting in unison at the side of the Entente will they eventually get what they have been striving for during a long period of years. At the same time the Allies must live up to the standards

of liberty and righteousness as exemplified in their gallant defense of heroic Belgium. The principle of nationality once raised, the Allies are bound to uphold it and to apply it wherever possible. A war that is giving Poland a new birth of freedom should not subjugate other small peoples to objectionable masters. If this is a war for liberation, then let it be a sincere effort for that purpose. The Balkan peoples are not afraid to join in this struggle on the side of the champions of the liberties of the small peoples. But of one thing they want to be sure beforehand, and this is that in case of victory their aspirations will be materialized. Let us see now what the Balkans want in order to throw in their lot with the Allies.

In the first place, they do not want to see Russia in Constantinople. On this score Greeks and Bulgars and Rumanians, and even Serbs, agree. With Russia once established on the Bosphorus, the Balkan peoples fear a dominion that will overwhelm one day their national existence. This fear is openly expressed all over the Balkans, and finds the most eloquent echo in the utterances of the powerful nationalist parties of Rumania, Bulgaria, and Greece, and in the majority of the press of these countries. With the strait in the hands of Russia, Rumania would feel as if bottled up in the Black Sea, with her huge grain exports at the mercy of such a formidable concurrent as the Russian Empire. Bulgaria fears Russian occupation of Constantinople more than any one of her neighbors. It seems that there is not enough room for two Czars in the Balkans, and it is most likely that with the advent of the one the other must go. As for Greece, her claims on Byzantium are too well known to allow any doubt as to her sentiments with regard to an eventual occupation of Constantinople by the Russians. Serbia at the same time devoted as she is to Russia, would see with some uneasiness the master of all the Slavs established on the Balkan peninsula.

In order to allay these apprehensions of the Balkan States, the Allies must

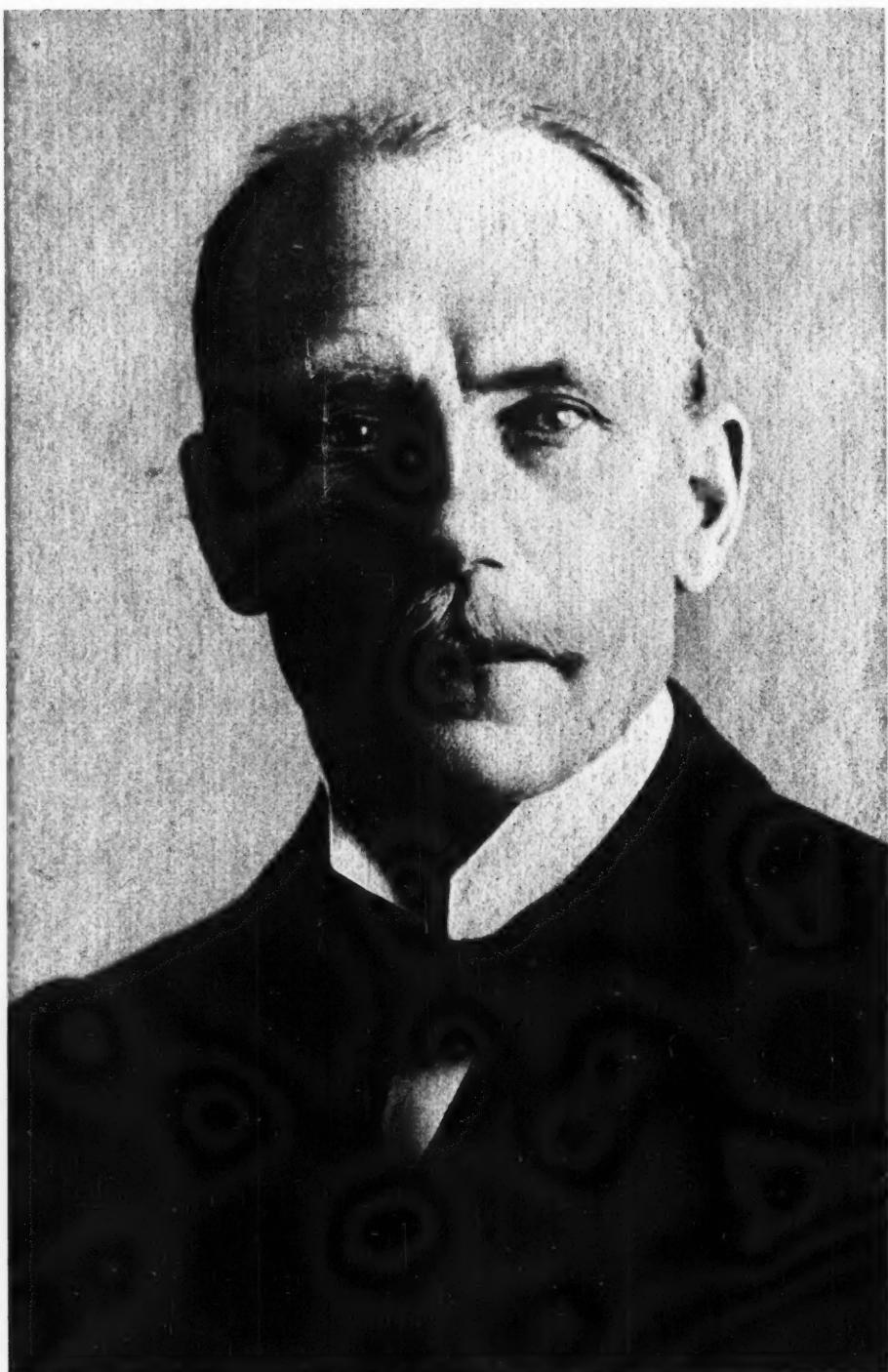
find a way, or rather a formula, by which to convince them that their fears are groundless, and that the giving of Constantinople to Russia will not in the least endanger their national individuality, and their various interests. This the Entente Powers can do. By taking the sting off the Russian occupation of Constantinople, a way for further negotiations with the Balkan States is opened. Let us examine now the other points of the question covering the possibilities of Balkan co-operation with the Entente powers.

As I previously said, the Allies want all the Balkan States with them. What they are looking for is not the separate assistance that each of these States can offer to the Allies in the case of entering the war. The co-operation of all the Balkans with the Entente is wanted, and to that end the reconstruction of the Balkan League is imperative. It is to this purpose that the Allies have been sounding lately the Balkan Governments in the effort to find a common ground where their views and aspirations could meet. They began with Athens, where they found, in the person of E. K. Venizelos, a statesman who was willing to compromise the Greco-Bulgarian differences in view of the brilliant future that opened for Greece in Asia Minor in case of her co-operation with the Entente. The promises of the Allies, however, not being well defined, King Constantine thought it better to dismiss his Premier and to ask the opinion of the country on the matter. The question of going to war or not going to war with the Allies was not put to the electorate; nevertheless Mr. Venizelos came out victorious at the election, simply because the Hellenic people wants him and no other at the head of the Government. Notwithstanding this there is a strong movement in Greece against the idea of any territorial concession to Bulgaria, no matter what compensations are offered elsewhere by the Allies. The Greek non-concessionists are strengthened in their stand by the attitude of the Allies themselves, which persist in making vague promises wholly unsuitable to the Greek mind.

With Bulgaria the case is different.



GENERAL ZUPELLI
Italy's Minister of War
(Photo from Medem Photo Service)



RIGHT HON. VISCOUNT BUXTON

Governor-General of the Union of South Africa, Which Has Added
by Conquest German South Africa to the British Crown
(Photo from Bain News Service)

She wants Adrianople and the Enos-Midia of Eastern Thrace, which territory was won by her in the Balkan war and allotted to her both by her allies and the Peace Congress of London. She wants the Bulgarian territory of Dobrudja, which was taken from her by Rumania at the close of the second Balkan war. Then she wants Serbian Macedonia, and finally a portion of Greek Macedonia. Giving Bulgaria what she wants, she becomes the predominant Balkan power unless her neighbors increase their territories correspondingly. It goes without saying that the principle of nationality claimed by Bulgaria in support of her aspirations is not strictly applied either in Thrace or in the whole of Serbian Macedonia, to say nothing of the Greek Macedonia. Bulgaria wants too much, but may be induced to accept less. But even supposing that the Allies are bent on satisfying all of her demands, let us examine how this will be done.

It has been said that Russia, once master of Constantinople, will not agree to the giving up to Bulgaria of the Enos-Midia line because she may want that territory as an additional hinterland to Byzantium. How much of this is true we do not know, but the story has appeared in the foremost Slav review of Petrograd, duly passed by the censor. Rumania, in order to return

Dobrudja to Bulgaria, wants all of the seven Rumanian Provinces of Austria, but, then, Russia wants Transylvania for herself, therefore Rumania gives nothing to Bulgaria.

Serbia is not willing to cede her Macedonia unless she gets a part of the Albanian littoral on the Adriatic, or, if not that, at least Dalmatia. Italy wants both places for herself. Greece wants those territories of Asia Minor where the overwhelming majority is Greek; this territory ought to be substantial, inasmuch as Greece loses valuable ground in Macedonia. It seems that the Entente powers want the best part of Asia Minor for themselves, while Italy and England keep the islands of the Archipelago, which never ceased to be Greek in population, in spirit, and in history.

In view of the eventual reconstruction of the Balkan Alliance, the above-mentioned factors must not be underestimated. Of course, a Balkan league with two million splendid soldiers can do away with the Turk, can open the strait, and permit Russia to get all the ammunition she needs; can strike at Austria, and end the war in a magnificent victory for the allied cause, which is the cause of humanity. But in order to have the Balkans fight for justice and liberty justice must be done to them and liberty given them.

Hellas

By WALTER SICHEL.

[From The Westminster Gazette.]

She looks from out the centuries
Across her own Aegean main.
As deep, as violet, throb her eyes
Lit up for Freedom once again—
The Muse for whom her poets bled,
Whom passionate Byron crowned anew,
On whose loved shores the undying dead
Received him—ere the sword he drew.

Ah! Can she stay on such a day
When classic echoes, like a bell,
Peal o'er the mountains, past the bay,
Up to the field where Hector fell?
Pallas Athene leads unseen.
Olive and laurel bind her brow—
The favorite child of Wisdom's queen,
Will scarcely prove a laggard now.

After Warsaw's Fall

Prosecution of the Teutonic Campaign in Russia

Reported Overtures by the Germans Seeking a Separate Peace with Russia and Other Powers

ALMOST simultaneously from Petrograd and from Milan announcements that, after the capture of Warsaw, Germany was seriously engaged in preliminary negotiations for the establishment of a peace were published. That the Dardanelles and Galicia had been offered by Berlin to Petrograd; that Egypt was asked for Turkey, and that the mediation of the Pope was desired on the basis of the restitution of Belgium, were some of the reports which gained currency between Aug. 5, the date of the fall of Warsaw, and Aug. 12, when the *Novoe Vremya* of Petrograd confirmed the rumors of German overtures for a separate peace with Russia.

Besides Galicia and the Dardanelles, the *Novoe Vremya* said, Germany would guarantee the integrity of the Russian frontiers, at the same time stipulating for Egypt on the pretext of ceding that country to Turkey, and for a free hand to deal with Russia's allies. The report declared that these offers were rejected by the Czar's Government.

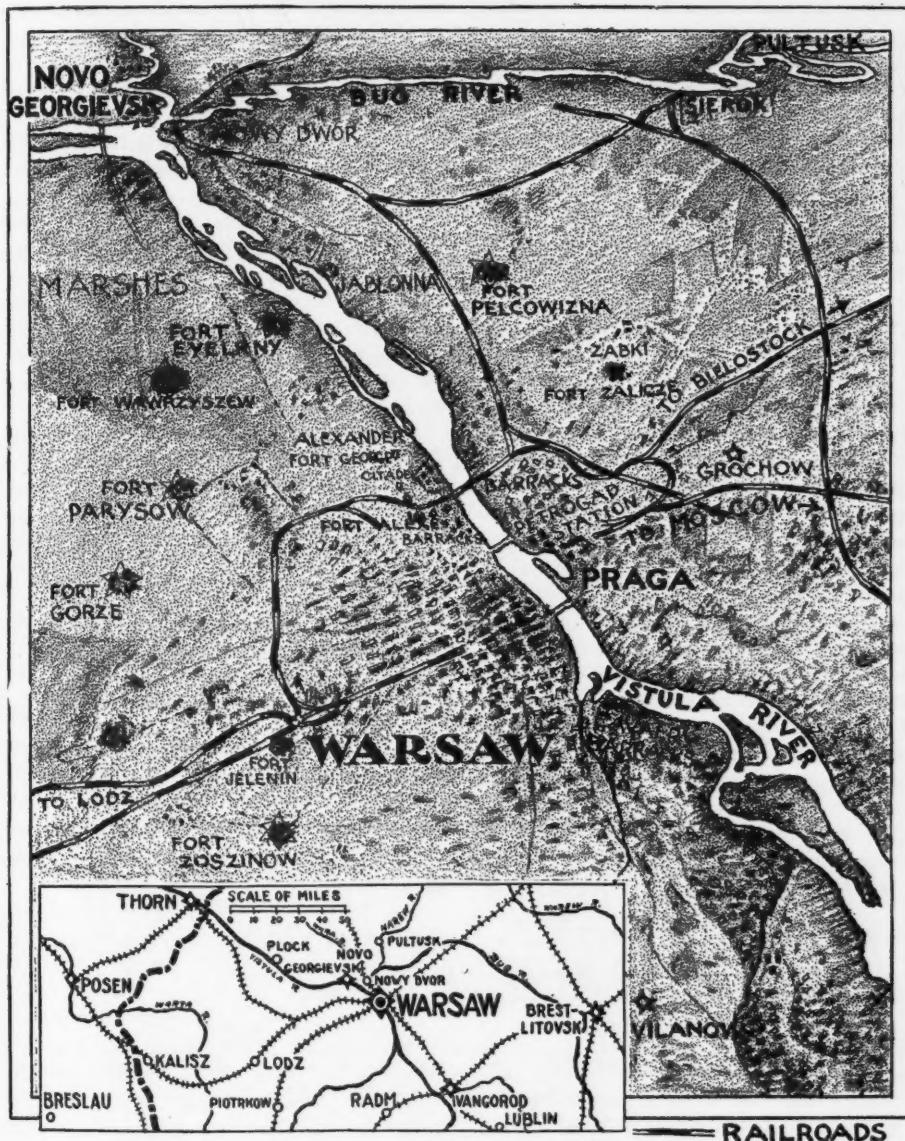
These reports followed the announcement of Germany's greatest victory in the war—the occupation of Warsaw on Aug. 5. The campaign had been fought along a front of 1,000 miles, extending from the Baltic to the frontier of Rumania. According to the most authoritative figures, there have been between 6,000,000 and 7,000,000 men engaged in almost daily conflict. Since the last week in May the attacks upon the sides of the inclosing lines—600 miles—of Warsaw have been the most furious in modern warfare, and only equaled by the vain counterattacks which have been more or less successfully launched by the Russians.

Up to July 29 hope was entertained in military quarters in London and Paris that the Russians had some tremendous coup in reserve, that they would stand a siege in their principal fortresses along the Warsaw salient, and then, with a free army still in the field, would attempt to turn the Teutonic flanks, either in the north between Libau and Riga or in the south on the Bukowinian-Rumanian frontier, or suddenly issue from the lines northeast and southeast of Warsaw and attempt to envelop the armies in the west.

But on July 29 came advices from Petrograd that in order to save the Russian armies a retreat—the greatest in history, even greater than the retreat of the Russians through Galicia from April 28 to May 25—must be made and the fortresses of the Warsaw salient abandoned. It was the same story of the Galician retreat—lack of ammunition. The armies would retire to prepared and selected ground forming a similar angle, 130 miles east of the Warsaw salient, and there await on the defensive the munitions necessary for a new and formidable offensive.

Notwithstanding the feints in the north, in the direction of Riga, the aim of the German General Staff has been obvious since the beginning of June. It was to reach the railways on which the Russian armies of the salient depended for their supplies and by which they might make their retreat.

To do this, seven huge armies were employed. The German northern army operating against the double-track line which runs from Warsaw to Petrograd, 1,000 miles in the northeast, via Bielostok and Grodno; the army operating in the Suwalki district, threatening the same line further west; the army fight-



A German Aviator's Chart of Warsaw.

ing as a support of the latter on the Narew; the army directly aimed at Warsaw, north of the Vistula; the army directly aimed at Warsaw, south of the Vistula; ten or twelve Austrian army corps, attempting to reach the single and double-track railway from Ivangorod to Brest-Litowsk and Moscow, and the line from Warsaw to Kiev via Lublin and Chelm, which is for the most part a single

track, and, finally, the army of von Linsingen, made up of Austria's "new" army of 700,000 or 800,000 men, operating on the Lipa east of Lemberg.

On July 29, in a special cable to THE NEW YORK TIMES, it was announced that the fate of Europe hung on the decision that Russia might make, the question being: Shall Russia settle down to a war of position in her vast fortifications

around Warsaw, or shall she "continue to barter space against time, withdrawing from the line of the Vistula and points on it of both strategic and political importance in order to gain the time which Germany has already stored in the form of inexhaustible gun munitions?"

The reply to this question was the evacuation of Warsaw, and a retreat like that of General Kuropatkin from Liao-Yang, with the attempt to inflict on the pursuers losses greater than those suffered by the retreating army.

Encircling movements from the north and pressure from the west by the Austro-Germans, together with attacks on the fortresses of Warsaw, Lomza, and Ostrolenka to the northeast, and Ivan gorod to the southeast, enabled the four Teuton armies to press the Grand Duke Nicholas's forces beyond the gates of Warsaw. The Russians abandoned Lublin on July 31; the Austro-Germans on Aug. 3 had occupied Mitau on the north and progressed beyond Chelm in Southeast Poland, and the Russians on Aug. 5 retired to the outer works of Lomza and Ostrolenka, while an Austrian wedge in the south was endeavoring to separate the Czar's armies in Poland and lower Russia. The Russian rearguard action was successful in delaying the capture of Warsaw at midnight of that day, the army of the Bavarian Prince Leopold

leading, until the evacuation of the Polish capital was completed.

But on Aug. 7, with the exception of the great entrenched camp of Novo Georgievsk, the Russians had evacuated the whole line of the Vistula River, Ivan gorod, the southern fortress, having fallen into the hands of the Austro-German Army. Reports that Kovno was being evacuated reached London on that day; on Aug. 12 the German official report announced that the Warsaw-Petrograd Railroad had been reached at the junction southeast of Ostrov, and the invaders were in the Benjaminov forts, east of Novo Georgievsk.

Further north, between Poniowitz and Dvinsk, where General von Bülow was advancing rapidly, the Germans were reported on Aug. 14 to be severely checked, and to have fallen into a trap set by the Grand Duke Nicholas. On Aug. 16 the German drive at Dvinsk was renewed, General von Bülow again taking the offensive with Field Marshal von Hindenburg. General von Hindenburg on Aug. 17 reported that his army had been successful in cutting the Russian line between the Narew and Bug Rivers, and the outer works of Kovno were taken. Field Marshal von Mackensen was also reported to be pushing back the Russians along the Bug.

Taking of Kovno.

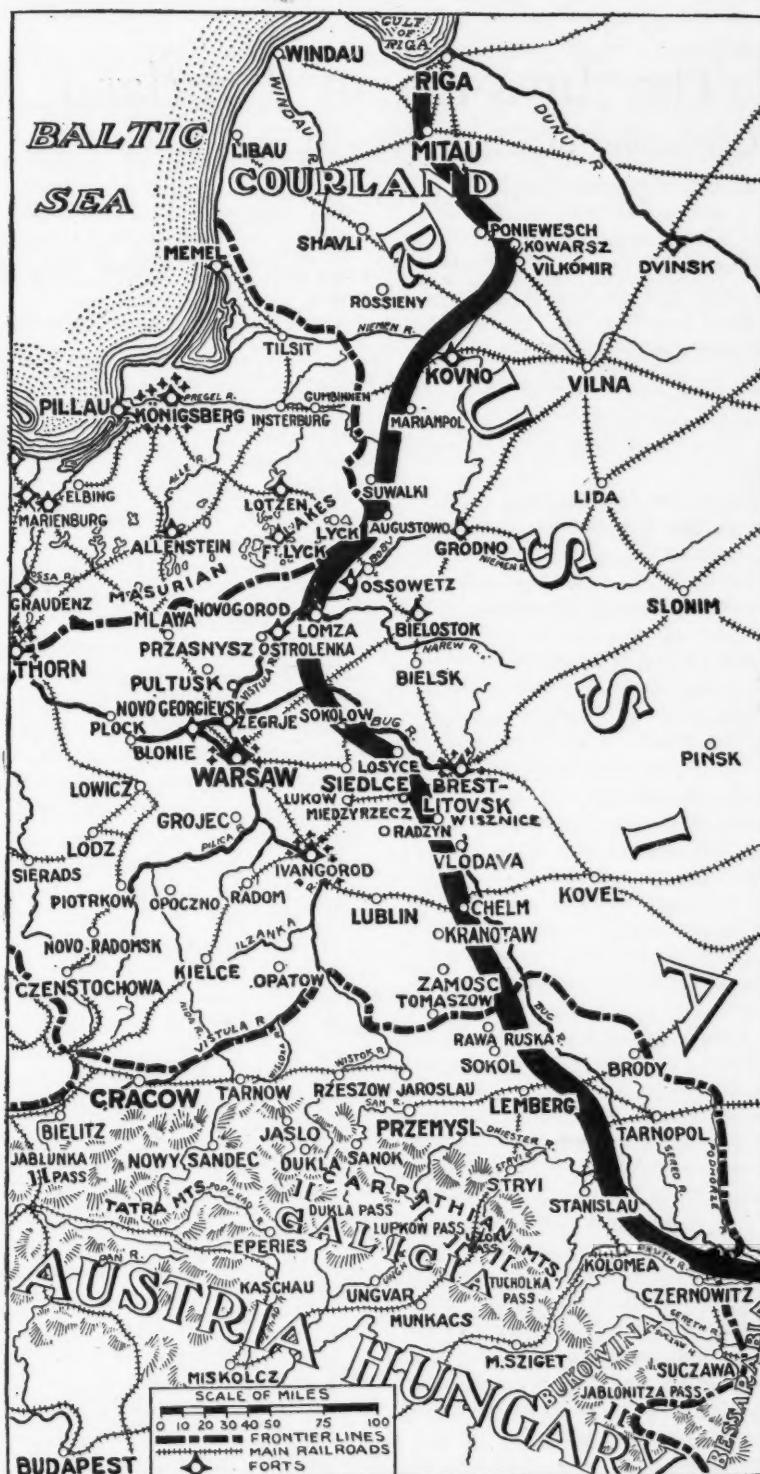
Kovno, one of the crucial points in the Russian defensive in the north, was captured by the Germans on the night of Aug. 19, and the road to the Vilna, Warsaw, and Petrograd railway, as reported by the German War Office, was laid open to the troops of Emperor William.

A dispatch to Reuter's Telegram Company from Amsterdam reported a dispatch received there from Berlin announcing that Emperor William sent telegrams of congratulations to Field Marshal von Hindenburg and Generals von Eichhorn and Litsmann. That to von Hindenburg said:

"With Kovno the first and strongest

bulwark of the inner line of the Russian defenses has fallen into German hands. For this brilliant feat of arms the Fatherland is indebted, as well as for the incomparable bravery of its sons and your conspicuous initiative. I express to your Excellency my warmest appreciation.

"Upon Col. Gen. von Eichhorn, who guided the movements of the army with such prudence, I confer the Order Pour le Mérite, and upon General Litsmann, whose arrangement along the attacking front secured a victory, the Oak Leaves of Merit."



Germanic War Area in the East, Showing the Battle Line on
August 15, 1915.

The Invasion of Courland

Operations of Field Marshal von Hindenburg

Officially Reported

The first detailed official German account of the operations of Field Marshal von Hindenburg in Courland, which played their part in the taking of Warsaw, appears below as translated from the German newspapers that published the official dispatches.

OPPOSITE KOVNO.

The following was reported from the German Great Headquarters, and printed in the Nord-Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung of June 20:

WHILE the German and Austro-Hungarian troops under the command of General von Mackensen prepared and successfully carried through the great drive in Galicia the armies of Field Marshal von Hindenburg had the task to maintain and enlarge the great successes won in the northern part of the mighty battlefield. By the direct threat toward Warsaw his troops have prevented any great offensive by the Russians, and in the Winter battles of the Masurian Lakes have with the utmost exertion of their forces swept German lands clean of the enemy. One must have driven in the beautiful days of early Summer through the East Prussian border counties, must have seen the waving fields of grain round about the sad mementos of the Russians' mania for destruction, fully to appreciate the significance of those great liberating actions.

But the troops of the Field Marshal could not and did not wish to rest upon their laurels. Not easily would the tough Russians give up their hunger for East Prussia, although they attempted no general offensive with the utilization of their wealth of human material, but continually made new single thrusts from their defensive positions. They held the fortress line on the Narew, the Bобр, and the Niemen, and sent attacking columns forward, especially from Grodno and Kovno. For this they have now lost their enthusiasm. Not only have German troops bloodily repelled all their advances and taken

firm footing on the lines northward, Praschny, Augustowo, Suwalki, Kalwarja, Mariampol, to Sapiezszyki, up along the Niemen, but north of the Niemen they have penetrated with a surprising offensive far into the enemy's lines. The brief Russian raid to Memel was followed by the invasion of Courland by our troops. It was as though Field Marshal von Hindenburg desired to show to the world by examples of both sorts how the Russians and how the Germans undertake and carry out such ventures. Concerning the final aim of these far-sweeping operations to the north of the Niemen as well as other movements of larger scope still under way, naturally nothing specific can be said before their conclusion. However, attention may be directed to the peculiar sort of warfare which occupied the leaders and their troops in the northeast, even in times of comparative quiet. The great distances, the comparatively broad extensions of the fronts of all units of both friend and enemy, and, not least, also the peculiar characteristics of our Russian opponents, make possible up there independent operations of small bodies of troops which would be quite unthinkable in other areas of the war.

On the Narew, the Bобр, and Niemen front such individual operations have occurred during the last months in large numbers. Naturally, as compared with the great battles in other places, they fell into the background; they are, however, when closely observed, of high military interest. They demand in a high degree independence and readiness of resolve on the part of the leaders and make very great demands on the troops. The superior training of German officers and

soldiers, which has shown itself in the long-drawn war of positions on the west front, shows itself also effectively on the east front in a war of movements of smaller scale. Most of these individual undertakings would have been possible only to German leaders and troops, many of them only when carried on against an enemy such as the Russians.

Especially successful examples of the way in which Field Marshal von Hindenburg's Russian strategy may be transferred to a smaller scale have recently been furnished by General of Infantry Litzmann with the troops under him. In accordance with the immediate orders of General von Eichhorn, he holds the watch south of the Niemen, opposite the great Russian fortress Kovno and the fortified place Olita. The Russians believed they could break through the line of his troops. From the great forest west of Kovno they sent attacking columns against the German left wing. General Litzmann, however, quickly gathered all the men whom he could spare from other points, and with these troops just as they came—forming many of the units upon the very battlefield itself—struck the Russians at Szaki so powerfully that they flowed back into the forest. But the German General did not wish to have them before his front in this territory so difficult of observation. He decided to clear this whole forest to its eastern edge, which is reached by the guns of the fortress Kovno of the enemy. To do this he brought up as many troops as possible on his left wing and started an encircling attack of wide scope. A strong column from Mariampol and from the Szeczupa line broke through the built-up defensive position of the Russians and advanced toward the southern corner of the great forest, where at Dembowa Buda it came upon strong resistance.

At the same time a strong body of troops entered the northern part of the forest and, swinging to the right, marched on several parallel roads in a southern direction. To carry out a frontal attack the cavalry went forward from west toward the east and then to

the southeast, here accomplishing a genuine infantry task, while a second body of cavalry did not find it necessary to leave its horses, and received orders to ride forward on the outermost left flank, along the Niemen, and if possible to bar the roads for the enemy's retreat toward Kovno. These were the glowing hot days of the second week in June, and in the pine forests stretching for miles there reigned an intense heat with complete absence of any breeze. But the German will to victory knew no weakening. Three Russian positions which had been established in the river valleys of the forest were one after another encircled from the north, and had to be given up. The Russians recognized the danger of the great concentric attack, and defended themselves bravely. Most of all, they were concerned to keep open as long as possible the road for the retreat to Kovno. Both to our southern column at Dembowa Buda, which was now pushing forward further on the Kovno road, and to our encircling cavalry from the Niemen they opposed obstinate resistance, and in the meantime hastened the retreat toward Kovno of all such forces as could still escape. However, the ring of the German troops closed too swiftly.

When our tireless warriors in the night pushed forward to the railroad station at Koslowa Buda, in the southern part of the forest, they found there a sleeping army. Something like 3,000 Russians had lain down there exhausted in order the next day to seek an opening to escape. Now they were saved from the trouble; they were carried away into captivity. The great forest was free of the enemy.

This was a well-deserved triumph, for undertakings of this sort are by no means easy. The moving backward and forward of troop units demands the greatest amount of attention and adaptability of the leaders. The maintenance of connections to the rear is made extremely difficult, and, above all, the troops must accomplish extraordinary things in marching, enduring, and fighting against an enemy full of wiles, skilled in digging himself in and in the fighting of re-

treat. It is a joy to see with what inexhaustible freshness and enthusiasm officers and men—frequently reserve and Landwehr formations—carry on this changeable but very exhausting sort of warfare and in what good condition they as well as their horses still are at the end of ten months of war. Rest here there is seldom. Hardly is there sufficient time given for the rearrangement of organizations when a new operation has to begin. But the men remain fresh when they see results. For several successful individual operations, when they have a common final aim, may have a common result which equals in value a great victory.

The battles north of the Niemen, which likewise were highly interesting, but differed in their characteristics from those here described, are sketched in a second description.

NORTH OF THE NIEMEN.

The following is reported to the Hamburger Fremdenblatt of July 9, 1915, from the German Great Headquarters:

North of the Niemen the troops falling within the district under the command of Field Marshal von Hindenburg hold firmly in their possession a large piece of beautiful Courland. One can ride more than 100 kilometers from the East Prussian border before striking the German infantry positions, which stretch for a distance of roughly 250 kilometers down to the Niemen River and up to the shore of the Baltic beyond Libau. As yet the operations there are not concluded, and the Russians may frequently puzzle their heads as to what may still be meted out to them there.

In the beginning the enemy, as we know from captured officers, was completely mistaken as to the significance of the German invasion of Courland. He believed that he had to do only with He believed that he had to do only with might possibly be supported by small infantry detachments brought along on automobiles. Only the powerful resistance of our troops to the continually increasing Russian reinforcements and our successful counterthrusts showed the true condition of affairs.

But the error of the Russians was excusable. For the rapidity of this advance was indeed astonishing—a brilliant achievement for the German troops and their leaders. Within a few days General von Lauenstein, who had been intrusted with the leadership of the enterprise, had made his preparations, in which was included an understanding with sections of the navy operating in the Baltic.

Early on the 27th of April the march of invasion began from the outermost flanking positions. One column crossed the Niemen at Schmalleningken, and to the north another, from 100 to 125 kilometers distant, moved forward from the northernmost tip of East Prussia in an easterly direction. The former on the first day penetrated Courland nearly fifty kilometers with its infantry and with its cavalry to Rossenie and beyond the Dubissa. The other encountered resistance at Koreiany and had to force the crossing over the Minna sector under the fire of the Russian heavy artillery, but also went forward a considerable distance. A third column moved forward more slowly in the middle. The boldness of this undertaking, so far extended, is the more apparent when it is considered that reports concerning the numbers and arms of the enemy had a very uncertain sound and that toward the end of April the country was still, on the whole, in a condition that permitted of forward movement practically only on the highways.

On the morning of the second day it was learned that the enemy who had stood on the main road from Tilsit to Mitau, near Staudwile, had hurriedly withdrawn to avoid the threatened encircling of his left flank, and had marched off toward Kielmy and Szawle, (Shavli.) Immediately the right column was sent after him. This, still on the same evening, took Kielmy, thus having moved forward in two days seventy-five kilometers. The left column was called upon to make especially heavy exertions in the very difficult, mostly marshy country. It was therefore supported by the middle column by a march half to the left, but yet its cavalry reached

Worny, on the line of lakes to the west of Kielmy.

The third day carried the right column across the Windawski Canal, which was defended by the enemy; the left to Worny and Telsze, and its cavalry to Trischki, northwest of Szawle. Nearly 100 kilometers still further forward have been won. The Russians, who had probably had in Courland only cavalry and home-defense troops, now quickly bring up reinforcements by railroad and unload them between Szawle and Szadow. But the leaders of the German troops are not to be confused by this; the cavalry receives orders to encircle Szawle, and the march goes on.

On the afternoon of the 30th of April, the fourth day, the right column enters Szawle, which the Russians have set afire, and continues the pursuit some distance beyond. The cavalry on the road to Janischki and Mitau captures machine guns, ammunition wagons, and baggage. It destroys the railroad tracks southwest and northwest of Szawle. The next day brings reports according to which the enemy is sending troops from Kovno to threaten our right flank. The infantry therefore is halted and pushed off to the right with instructions to hold the Dubissa line; the cavalry, however, continually reaches out further and further forward. After skirmishes it occupies Janischki and Shagory, which are only six miles distant from Mitau, and takes prisoners, machine guns, and baggage from the enemy's troops, which are fleeing in complete disruption to Mitau. On the 2d of May it encircles those Russians that have remained standing in the intervening territory at Skaisgiry and takes 1,000 prisoners. Extensive destruction of railway tracks on all lines that can be reached succeeds according to our desires.

Thereupon the cavalry of the right column is taken back to support the counterthrust on the Dubissa, but that of the left, although the arrival in Mitau of Russian reinforcements is already reported, pushes forward by way of Grünhof, takes prisoner an additional 2,000 Russians, and on the 3d of May stands two kilometers in front of Mitau.

The extraordinary achievements in marching of both our infantry and our cavalry are the more to be highly rated as the roads were in the worst imaginable condition and the bridges mostly destroyed. Now the fending off of the Russian thrust against our left flank made new heavy demands on the endurance of our troops. An encircling counteroffensive on the Dubissa proved to the enemy how greatly he had underestimated the strength of the German troops. He recovered but slowly from his surprise and brought up fresh masses of infantry, cavalry, and artillery. At the same time the Russians suffered still another surprise, a move which they apparently had not at all considered—the advance on Libau. While our main columns were striving by forced marches to reach the upper Dubissa, a supplementary column went forward somewhat more slowly from Memel northward. One section marched by way of Schkndy, another close to the seashore from the south toward Libau.

Of the enemy little was to be seen. The navy had already, on the 29th of April, shaken his nerve by the bombardment of Libau. On the 6th of May he himself blew up the east forts, and then our warships silenced the shore batteries. Our land troops, which found it difficult to believe in such a weak defense of the great port, and were always holding themselves in readiness for an ambush, took the south forts after a short fight and attacked from the land side. But the Russians literally had not been prepared for this stroke. All they could do was still to unload increased numbers of troops in Mitau and send them forward in a southwesterly direction. But they were unable to break our slowly retiring line. On the 8th of May, at 6 o'clock in the morning, the German soldiers marched into Libau. Some 1,500 prisoners, twelve guns, and a number of machine guns constituted the booty. Daring enterprise had won its reward. Detachments were quickly sent forward some fifty kilometers through Prekuln and Hasenpot and along the shore to safeguard the place. They have thus far repulsed all attacks of the enemy,

who is slowly gathering his forces, and will continue to do so.

The significance of this whole invasion of Courland and the development of the further battles in the Dubissa sector are dealt with separately.

LIBAU—THE BATTLES ON THE DUBISSA.

The following is supplied to the Wolff Telegraphic Bureau by the German Great Headquarters and published in the Frankfurter Zeitung of July 10:

The immediate aim of the invasion of Courland was to occupy the Dubissa line and to seize Libau. This success has been achieved and can doubtless be maintained. We have built up very strong positions there. Our further intentions must for the present remain unrevealed. We can be well content with the results thus far attained. Not only have the German troops distinguished themselves in marching and in battle against an enemy who at times was far superior in numbers, but they have also occupied a beautiful and valuable portion of Russian soil.

Southern Courland presents a landscape of much charm. Much as the well-marked chains of hills, the tall forests, abundantly scattered clumps of shrubbery, and innumerable waters, lakes, and swamps render difficult the life of the soldier, they are a delight to the peaceful observer. Yet withal they do not rob the country of the magic of vast distances. It is only necessary to ascend a moderate hill to enjoy a view for miles round about. One can readily understand that once Germans settled here. Unfortunately, our troops find little or no sign of this here now. The thin German surface layer mostly disappeared when the war came into the neighborhood, and the inhabitants of the country by no means show themselves friendly to the Germans. Our men complain especially of the hostility and spying of the Letts, who in times past were worked up against the Germans by the Russians. Further south, among the Lithuanians, however, it is not much better. Life for the troops of the army of occupation in these districts, which, aside from the few large estates, can show

hardly a decent house, according to German standards, and even in the large villages no proper inn, is anything but pleasant. The Russian Government has played the part of but a niggardly stepmother toward this originally rich region and has but very sparingly supplied it with roads and railways. Yet the country had not been so impoverished that considerable stores could not be utilized for us of subsistence for man and beast, of cattle, leather, and alcohol.

Of particular value, of course, was the seizure of the big commercial port of Libau. In the warehouses there we found considerable quantities of export goods which proved very valuable to us and which in spite of attempts at interruption on the part of minor Russian naval forces, are steadily being transported to Germany. Of intrenching and other military tools there was a sufficient supply for a whole army. The factory in which they are made is now being carried on by the German Government. In Libau are now also being manufactured for our army chains, barbed wire, and other ironwork. A saddlery and a tannery are also at work. Finally, there is a big dairy for supplying the poorer part of the population with milk. Thus the Germans are accomplishing here a valuable task of organization, which it has been found necessary to extend even to the financial system, which, on account of a lack of care on the part of the Russian Government, was approaching a complete breakdown. The City of Libau has issued assignats which serve as currency; the Bank of Libau honors the requisition certificates at a discount of 10 per cent. No levy has been laid upon the city; it is required only to assist in the maintenance of the troops quartered there. Libau is a city of attractive appearance and a bathing resort with streets of fashionable villas, pretty lawns, and a splendid beach. The Russians, especially the officials, for the most part have fled.

However, the invasion of Courland has not only brought us economic advantages and a valuable piece of Russia, but has achieved important results from

a military standpoint in that it has caused the enemy to throw strong forces into this quarter and thereby to weaken his line at other points.

The encounters on the Dubissa line have been marked by many bloody fights. In their course our troops have gradually gone from the defensive, which was carried on with powerful counter-thrusts, to the offensive.

From the first period an engagement may be selected here which is typical of the battles of that time on the Dubissa and which affords a model picture of the co-operation of the three principal arms. The Russians put great value on the possession of the Dubissa line, and especially of Rossienvy, which dominates it as the point of junction of the highways. On the 22d of May they brought up a fresh body of élite troops, the First Caucasian Rifle Brigade, consisting of four infantry regiments and the artillery belonging thereto. This, supported by the Fifteenth Cavalry Division, began to move toward Rossienvy, but was held for a whole day by the outposts of our cavalry on the other side of the Dubissa. The time was sufficient to permit of the bringing up of enough German reinforcements and to prepare a counterattack. On the 23d of May we let the enemy come over the river and approach Rossienvy from the north. During the night, however, the greater part of our troops was led around the western wing of the enemy and placed in readiness to attack.

When it grew light their fate was let loose upon the Russians. Strong artillery fire from our position to the north of Rossienvy was poured upon the Russian trenches. At the same time our infantry threw itself upon the flank of the Russian position and rolled it up. Without offering any serious resistance, the Russians fled across the Dubissa to escape the effect of our artillery. Not until they had reached the forest on the west bank of the river did they again settle down to make a stand. But now the pressure of our troops approaching from the south made itself felt. At the same time portions of our cavalry entered into the fight from the north, taking the

Russians in the rear. Under these circumstances the Russians did not further continue the battle. Neither were they able to hold their position, strongly constructed as a bridgehead on the west bank. With a bold dash our troops rushed the wire entanglements, and now the Russian masses flooded backward through the valley of the Dubissa under a most effective fire, suffering most serious losses. But even on the heights opposite they found no shelter. Here they had to continue their retreat under the flanking fire of our cavalry, which in the meantime had crossed the river and was advancing against the road of the retreat. Again the losses piled up.

It will be readily comprehended that under these circumstances only fragments of the Caucasian infantry were able to save themselves. Twenty-five hundred prisoners and fifteen machine guns remained in our hands. Counting their sanguinary sacrifices, the Caucasians lost fully one-half of their strength. The brigade for a long time was incapable of giving battle, and even later, when filled up with new complements of men, no longer showed any real fighting spirit. Our troops, on the other hand, which had suffered comparatively small losses, marched gayly singing into their positions.

Similar successful thrusts were made by our troops repeatedly on the Wenta against the enemy, who ever again kept pressing forward. Then, on the 5th of June, a general offensive, ordered by the superior command of the army along the whole line, set in, which brought our lines a considerable distance forward. We crossed beyond the Dubissa, in obstinate, hard-fought battles won the crossing of the Windawski Canal; occupied Height 145, near Bubie, which had been drenched with the blood of many conflicts; pushed so close to Szawle that our heavy guns could reach the city, and took Kane, twelve kilometers northwest of Szawle. On the 14th of June this operation came to a temporary stop.

The Russians in all these battles suffered enormous losses in dead, wounded, and prisoners. On the other hand, they had become very careful in the use of

their heavy artillery and very short of officers. It is significant that among 1,400 prisoners there were only a few officers and that no guns were taken

with these. There seemed to be signs of the disintegration of the Russian Army in this region also. They are to be observed and utilized.

Warsaw

By Charles Johnston

COMING from Petrograd, you arrive at your terminus in the Praga suburb, which covers the low plain on the right bank of the Vistula. There you take a carriage, or, in these more modern days, a motor, and wend your way through streets indescribably dirty, as dirty and strong smelling as the streets of Naples, and as picturesque; yet with a totally different cast of countenance, for here the color is of the Jews, with its intensity, its poignancy, its tremendous possibilities of suffering and romance. For Warsaw, with its suburb, is one of the great Jewish cities of the world, having within its boundaries not less than five times as many Jews as inhabit Jerusalem.

From Praga, through these dingy, tortuous streets, unrelieved by any conspicuous monument or building, save one Russian church, you drive, or, as before, you motor, to the eastern end of the great Vistula bridge of Alexander II., which takes off from a very dainty little park, the only beautiful thing in the whole suburb. As soon as you are on the bridge, you are certain to be struck, first, by the width of the silver-white, swift-flowing river, and then by the exceedingly picturesque sky-line of the city on its western bank, very conspicuous, because it rises on a terrace some 120 feet high above the river. And, on your right hand, as you reach the western bank, rises the building that is the very heart of old Warsaw's history, the ancient royal palace, founded by the old Dukes of Mazovia, before the wild Hapsburgs had descended from their Hawk's Rock in Switzerland, for that is the meaning of the name, which is, in full, Habichtsburg, "the fort of the hawk."

If your eyes have been distorted by the

skyscrapers of New York, you will find the old royal palace of Poland rather low, stunted, unimposing; and you will quickly realize that nothing at all of the twelfth century building remains, unless it be the big vaults; yet there is dignity and charm and pathos in the not very lofty walls with their columns and oblong windows, with the spire-topped tower in the centre of the front. Within, though there are fine halls, rich in many-colored marbles, yet they have been long stripped and desolate, and one's footsteps ring mournfully on the uncovered flags. The palace opens on the Square of King Sigismund, and from it one gets a good general view of the city, with its fourscore church towers, where, so recently, the bells rang melodiously for matins and vespers.

The practical thing to do, then, if you wish to see the city, is to follow one after another of the big avenues that radiate southward, westward, northward from Sigismund Square, beginning, let us say, with the south, which will take you along the direction of the old road to Cracow. This is the elegant quarter of the city, and there is a genuine Parisian charm in the finely built streets, with their very tastefully adorned shops, their gardens, their palaces. When you come to the Saxon Garden, named for one of the Kings of the Saxon dynasty who once ruled over Poland, stop, look, and listen; try to catch something of the spirit of the Polish people, who here show themselves to the very best advantage; for the Saxon Garden is to Warsaw what the Garden of the Tuilleries is to Paris. And, as you watch, as you notice the distinction of the men, so many of whom are admirably dressed, as you become conscious of the personal note, the charm of the women,

for whom, perhaps, distinguished is a more fitting word than beautiful, though they are that also, and, if you are a lover of children, as the fineness and grace of the children impresses itself on your grateful soul, you will become profoundly convinced that, for all their tremendous errors, the Polish people have a genius, a message, so distinctive, so individual, that, for the sake of mankind as well as for themselves, their national spirit should have free and unimpeded scope. Without question, Poland should be once more a nation; if not the enormously extended empire it was in its greatest days, much larger than either France or Germany today, yet a nation large enough and strong enough to establish and hold its own type, its own genius, its own civilization absolutely unimpaired. Such a restored Poland will be doubly valuable; not only will it bear sound and excellent fruit of itself, but it will mediate and interpret between the vast Slav empire on the east and the diverse nations on the west; just as, in greater degree, semi-Oriental Russia will interpret and mediate between Europe and revived and vigorous Asia. Without doubt, it seems, such national restoration lies before Poland. And one is confident that, once it is achieved, the national note of Poland will declare itself to be, not pathetic and melancholy, but gay, blithe, joyous, full of rejoicing.

Then, if you think a little, brooding over the names, the Saxon Garden, the Saxon Palace overlooking it, you will ask yourself. Why these foreign Kings, these foreign dynasties, even while Poland was still a nation, unpartitioned? And the answer is, the fatal folly of the Polish nobles, who, more arrogant than the old noblesse of France, tore the kingdom to pieces in their haughty efforts to crush and outdo each other; who enrolled armies larger than the national armies, to make war upon each other, and who lost sight altogether of national aims, of national existence even, in their own insensate and vaulting ambitions. This perpetual discord, with the elective kingship which was the expression of it, was the ruin of a nation that deserves a better fate. Without that fatal weakening,

Poland would never have been "divided and given to the Medes and Persians." Along the Ujazdowska Avenue, one comes to the most charming building in all Warsaw, the Lazienki Palace, in its altogether delicious gardens, mirrored in a lovely little lake, as essential to its beauty as are the marble reservoirs of the Taj Mahal, in which the loveliest of all buildings mirrors itself. But even here you do not get a single note of national Polish architecture. As a basis of comparison, think of Moscow with its Kremlin, its Scarlet Square, its startlingly vivid Church of Basil the Blessed. Moscow is the most individual city in the world. Warsaw, in its architecture, and especially in the forms of its many palaces, is not national, not Polish at all, but Italian, of the Renaissance, with just the same pillars and pilasters that one sees in every recent building in Western Europe, or, even more out of place, among the icicles of Petrograd, whose cathedrals and palaces, St. Isaac's, the Hermitage, the Winter Palace, even the very national Kazan Cathedral, are every one in the Italian style.

The Lazienki Palace was built at the end of the eighteenth century by King Stanislas Poniatowski, one of Poland's fatal rulers, and, in later years, it was the scene of one of the many tragic passages of Polish history, but this time not a tragedy of the Poles. For it was in the lovely little park of the Lazienki Palace that the Grand Duke Constantine bade a heavy-hearted farewell to Poland, and, after trying, in all sincerity, year after year, to win the affections, the trust, the confidence of the Poles, and trying altogether in vain. He was a son of the Emperor Nicholas I., and therefore a brother of Alexander II., liberator of the serfs and of the Balkan nations; a brother also of the Grand Duke Nicholas the elder, father of the present Commander in Chief, and himself Chief Commander of the Russian armies in the Turkish wars of 1877-78, which gave an assured national existence to Serbia, Bulgaria, and Rumania. Grand Duke Constantine, whose son, the royal poet, died only a few weeks ago, made the sincerest, the most loyal effort to make friends

with Poland; but all to no purpose. So this historic picture, too, comes to memory, as we turn back from the southern limit of the city, and return to our starting point, in the Sigismund Square.

Drive now to the north, along the narrowing avenue that takes you ultimately to the fort called the Citadel, on the outer fringe of the town. Nowhere will you get a more complete, more drastic contrast, for a few minutes takes you into the very heart of the old Jewish settlement, with its dark, gloomy, forbidding yet romantic, and romantically dirty streets. Here, in every face, keen, sallow, tragical, you will see the intensity, the fiery energy, that made St. Paul—and that, in so many cities, stoned St. Paul, on the accusation of treachery to the ancient ideals of the nation. The long, dark, seedy overcoat, which one imagines to be the Jewish gabardine of Shylock, the black, peaked cap, the high, rusty boots are universal, even on boys of 3 or 4, who are, but for the lack of straggling beards, adults in miniature; the keen, dark eyes of the younger girls, as intent as the eyes of Rebekah or Rachel; the shrewd, often shrewish faces of the elder women, all make a memorable, striking, poignant picture. It was a Jew, and one of the greatest of them, that said, "the glory of a woman is her hair"; yet, in obedience to some Talmudic injunction, these keen-eyed Jewish girls, as soon as they are married, have their heads shaved, and thereafter wear a wig, made of hair, or a mere skullcap of black silk; and this, too, adds its note, not an attractive one, to the vivid picture. Curiously enough, in the very heart of this northern part of the city is the Roman Catholic Cathedral of St. John, in which is kept a banner taken by John Sobieski in 1683, when he save Vienna from the all-conquering Turks. But even when one comes to study the Warsaw churches, and there are four score of them, of the Western rite, one finds them as little national as the palaces of the old nobles and Kings.

Coming back once more to the centre of the city, and going to the northwest, one finds two more beautiful buildings:

the charming Krasniwski Palace, built, of course by an Italian architect, at the end of the seventeenth century, and restored after the great fire of 1783; and the Russian Cathedral, rebuilt in 1857—in the style, not of the genuinely Russian Kremlin and its churches, but of the Italian Renaissance.

Finally, to the southwest, a wide avenue, called, first, Senatorial Street and then Electoral Street, leads to the Wola Gate, beyond which is the fatal field on which were held the internecine elections of the Polish Kings—the cause, above all things, of the national downfall. On the way thither, one passes the Town Hall, a quite modern building, the Bank of Poland, the Zamoyski Palace, and the Church of St. Charles Borromeo.

And now Warsaw has once more fallen into the hands of an invader; once again, after many like calamities. In spite of its fortifications, built in 1339, it was captured, in 1596, from the Mazovians by the Poles, who had hitherto reigned at Cracow—a city that has all the Polish nationalism that Warsaw lacks; in 1655 was conquered by Charles Gustavus, to be won back again within the year by John Casimir, who once more lost it a month later. Throughout the second part of the seventeenth century, Saxon Kings reigned there; from 1735 to 1738 it was the scene of fierce fighting between Augustus II. and Stanislas Leszczynski; and 1764 to 1774, and again in 1793, it was occupied by the Russians, who never forgot the griefs that Moscow had suffered from the Poles, in the days when Poland was the stronger nation. In 1809 Warsaw was occupied by the armies of Austria, it being then, through Napoleon's ruling, the capital of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw; in 1813, it was once again occupied by Russia, which has dominated it now for over a century.

Let us hope that now, amid the clash of armies, Destiny may have in store for Poland a renewal of national life, in which the ancient dangers and evils will be conquered, the ancient genius once more shine out resplendent. The novels, the music, the singers, the actors of Poland are but a pledge of far greater riches in the days to come.

The Brave and Cheerful Briton

By Maximilian Harden

"An enforced holiday of indefinite duration" has been imposed upon Mr. Harden, the editor of *Die Zukunft*, and recognized as one of the ablest newspaper men in Europe, according to a cable dispatch from Copenhagen on Aug. 1, the dispatch stating that his recent articles had displeased the Berlin authorities. While his exile from Germany has not been confirmed, and while *Die Zukunft* still bears Mr. Harden's name as its editor, the issue of July 17 omits his leading article. The following article, yielding tribute to the British character and genius, was published by the German editor in the issue of May 22.

WHY berate the Britons? They are but doing what they must do. Why tell them, day in and day out, that we are the better, the superior ones, the only perfectly unselfish human beings on earth? It makes them only smile.

Nor should we ever have talked idiotically about blood relationship and Christian duty that commands pious brotherhood. We should have always borne in mind what Palmerston said in the House of Commons after the February revolution in Paris: "Only dreamers can labor under the romantic delusion that relations between nations, between Governments, are essentially, or even permanently, governed by friendship or similar emotions."

Germany had no reason to be thankful to Britain, but she had a hundred reasons to fear her—fear that is based upon respect. Great Britain is wonderfully strong, the biggest world empire that history has known; in three-fourths of the inhabited earth today the English language is spoken.

Germans who on the Rigi have once sat beside a Liverpool tailor disguised as a lord, Germans who gather their wisdom from the comic sheets, think they know Britain and the British. And this is their idea of Englishmen: Sneaking and cowardly; stiff, grouchy or spleenish; without a longing for Kultur; only a craze for sports and greed in their heads—that, roughly, is the popular picture.

That the most convincing new theories which taught us to learn nature and the mind; that Shakespeare's country had, even in the nineteenth century, the most

productive literature (not poetry)—these things are overlooked. Because the Briton loves sport and spends almost as much time playing golf or football as the German does in drinking beer, he is ridiculed. Is the Englishman silly because he is anxious that his county should win in the cricket match? Does not his play, which steels the body, serve his fatherland?

Did you ever go into Hyde Park and there see the hundreds of sturdy, white-haired old men riding briskly on horseback? And the young girls and old ladies in the West End; the workmen with their children on the playgrounds? Look at them and compare them with the thin-blooded, prematurely withered, overfattened and wabbling figures you meet at every step in the Continental cities!

The Briton, cheerful, healthy, and brave, was quick to realize that only the strong can conquer the world, and he procured for himself the hygiene which is necessary to a nation confined most of the time to factories and offices, lest it die away. The Briton's mode of living and his actions are sensible; he can obey without humiliation and force and give obedience without arbitrary tyranny.

In India a Commissioner with only a handful of whites at his disposal commands millions of the brown race who do not dare wrinkle their brows before his glance. In London, if an uprising is feared, Dukes join hands with cellar tenants to do constable duty. Everybody, whether he possess fortune or have only a few pounds to lose, takes the oath, joins the ranks, and marches against the foes of society. And it is because this real-

ization of an ever-ready, defensive strength governs all minds that full freedom is given to speech, to criticism, to satire; that the most brazen things may be said with impunity about the King and his Ministers, about the institutions, officials, and about the national character. Not before the highest officer of the empire would the Briton bow the knee.

Young men and women associate in the closest friendship, pass whole days together on the river, without their aunts as chaperons, and not one rough or immodest word disturbs the harmless hilarity; any one who would dare offend the ears of decent women by indecent remarks would thereupon become impossible in that company.

We are only praising what deserves praise. Have the Britons peddler souls? They didn't think of their wares, but exposed them to the gravest possible danger and sacrificed billions in order to destroy Bonaparte, to whose hypnotic will and power they alone—in all Europe, they alone—did not succumb!

There are some in Germany who used to praise all these good qualities of the English. They knew that England has hardy human material, a moral sturdiness which of all nobilities is the most useful for battle, and that she has able women; that England was wise enough to guard against the endemic evils of all democracies and has remained in the twentieth century, as in the Wars of the Roses, an oligarchy. Those Germans went mad when they read in the newspapers vilification of England, Germans who early and late had admired the noblesse in the lion's eye.

Those were the Germans who could not comprehend how a poor word could be said in behalf of the British Empire and its people, for to them the paramount, natural issue was: Germany must go hand and hand with Britain, must be Britain's friend—always only Britain's. They were not so dangerous as the Briton haters, who, during the Boer war, saw already the empire of the Angles crushed and crumbled, and who glowed with love for the Boers.

Never would England have become

what she is today if all classes had not felt, as Palmerston said, that emotions do not determine the relations between nations.

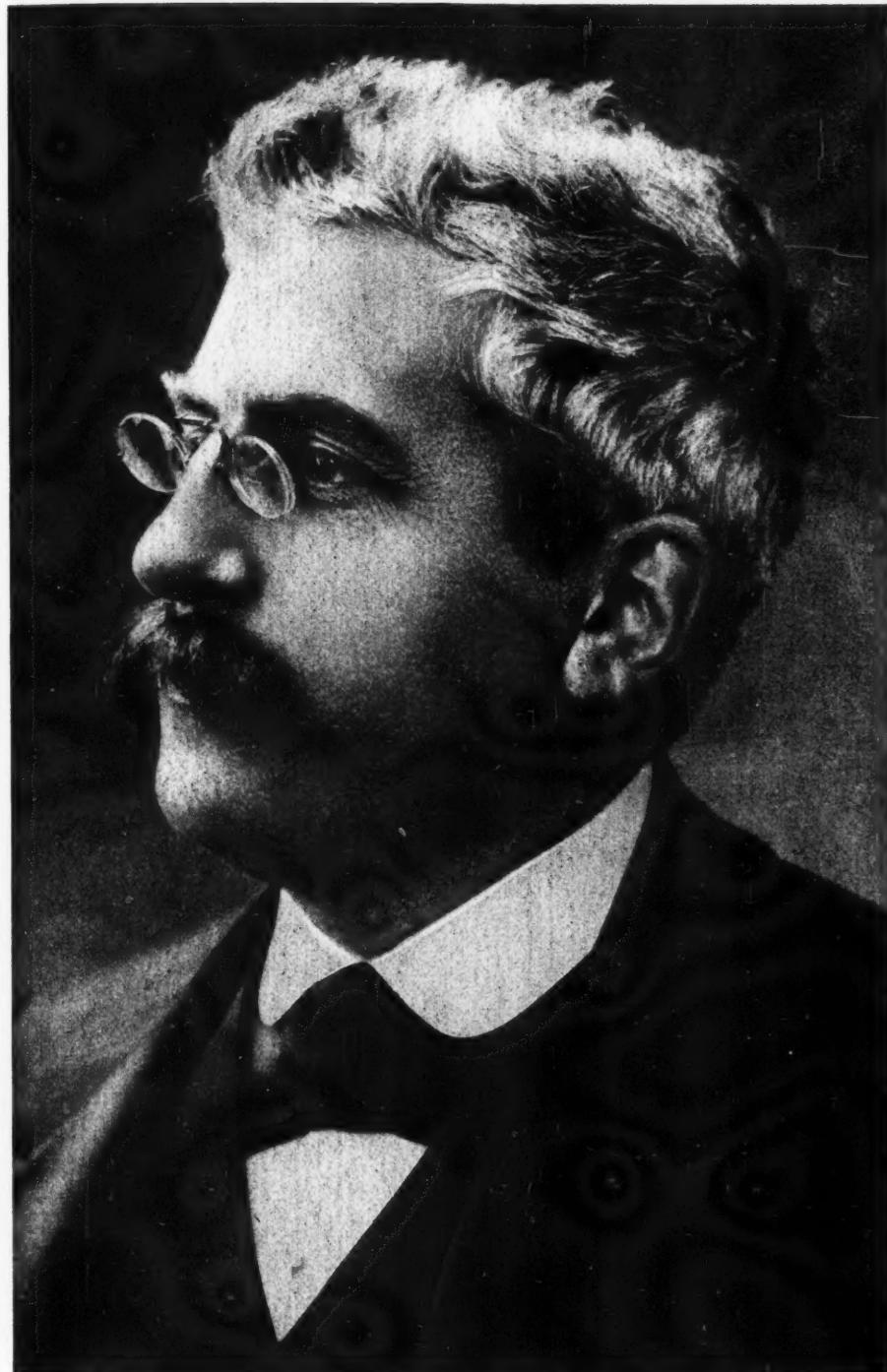
The individual Briton would be filled with disgust at seeing one of the yellow race at his table. The British Nation jubilated and cheered the Japanese because Japan rendered such good services as an instrument against Russia. And the British Nation cajoles the disgusting Hottentots when the Hottentots can be used to frustrate German plans of colonization.

Shall we Germans never learn the principles of practical politics? Shall we always despise the English because they let others fight their battles for them as long as it is possible; and because they pay for their wars only with gold, not with blood, the noblest treasure of all nations? Shall we always fumble along with abstract legal conceptions and emotions instead of considering only the advantage of our nation?

Whether we love the Russian or despise the Czar along with his whole miserable tribe, we do desire Russia to be our customer and ally. And whether we admire the free and sturdy Briton or sneer at him at times as a Quaker, hypocrite, and cant worshipper, we had to arm ourselves against England's aggressive power.

Germany long looked to England like a blown frog that soon must lose his breath. The German immigrant offered cheaper work than the British engineer, agent, clerk, or waiter. The German immigrant endured worse treatment than the Briton; he hastened on the market to divest himself of his national garb and to adapt himself to Anglo-Saxon ways; wore woolen shirts and could live without a bathtub; reason enough to despise him.

With these creatures, who do not train their bodies, who can't be happy without beer and who as thirty-year-olds sport an embonpoint—with them, so it was thought, Germany will not conquer the world. "A nice country—very nice. Dresden, Nuremberg, Freiburg, Heidelberg, Rothenburg; old churches and ancient ruins; and everywhere music, sausage and Munich beer; a nice country in-



M. MILLERAND
Minister of War of France
(Photo from Bain News Service)



TALAT BEY
Turkey's Acting Minister of Marine
(Photo from Paul Thompson)

deed, quite appropriate for a Spring journey! Also a very nice and striving industry which we may well help along with good profit, because they can't compete with us." So thought the Britons.

Long ago the German was not welcome in England, but he came to be respected. And no Englishman thinks of underestimating or even looking down upon Germany. Our industrials and merchants have become dangerous to the British captains of industry. England sometimes had the stronger personalities; Germany always had the stronger organization.

The Prussian lieutenant, the Deutsche Bank, the Allgemeine Elektrizitäts-Gesellschaft, the Badische Anilinfabrik and the German Socialists; these most visible fruits of German culture do not grow in Albion's sea climate. The competition soon became worse in that the German worker was content with lower pay, the technician more thoroughly trained, the German salesman more far-sighted.

With the desire of the statesmen to keep this young Continental power in check came the fury of those menaces commercially. The zone of friction had become greater; political intercourse more difficult.

Yet the possibility of a serious conflict seemed far distant. Bismarck, with his dead sure calculation and his majestic common sense, always knew just what he had to hope and what he had to fear from England. If he had had his way England and Germany would have long continued courteously to tolerate one another. The German Empire, he figured, needed a half century to strengthen itself domestically, to secure the new borders in the east and west, and meanwhile it might well play the part of the satiated State; the rest remained to be seen.

The situation was tolerable because the eyesight of Bismarck, who knew the traditions of English policy, was not blinded by illusions and because across the Channel the Whigs and the Tories knew that this Minister would never serve British desires, would never become their pawn.

Britannia quickly learned to hope again

when Bismarck had been sent away. Victoria's son, the son of the Coburger Albert, when a young Prince had scolded his sister, who called herself "half English," and when he had cut his finger in a garrison yard, loudly declared that he hoped upon that occasion to get rid of his last drop of English blood.

But a young gentleman changes his mind sometimes. Also he can be humbugged. After the uncomfortable days of Narwa the Emperor went to London, and the consequence of this trip was the Zanzibar treaty which procured us Heligoland, but threw the chief key to East Africa into England's lap.

Blood is thicker than water. Much was talked of the German-British brotherhood in arms. The aged Empress was caressingly cajoled, and the young Emperor was decorated daily with new wooden wreaths by the English press. For had he not celebrated the British national heroes, Wellington and Kipling? Had not the friendship with Russia already become chilly? On many a holiday the Kaiser put on the English uniform. Never had the union jack waved in a brighter sun.

Nothing to fear in Asia, nothing in Africa. Zanzibar, Witu, Sudau, the Transvaal and Orangeland had been conquered. Blood is thicker than water. Hope shown brightly. "This German Emperor does not forget that he was born of an English woman."

If he only wouldn't talk so much of the value of sea power! "Our future lies upon the water." "Imperial power is sea power." "We need sorely a powerful fleet."

For what is all that necessary? To protect the export trade? No Briton believed that. Only for a war against England does the German Empire need a great war fleet. Is that war being planned? Is that why the Islam world is being so tenderly wooed? Is that why a German Prince is sent to Holland as coast guard? Is that why every imaginable courtesy is being paid to America and to France?

"Without the sanction of the German Emperor no great decision must be made in the future."

None? Not in Asia, either? That, then, was the intention of the treaty?

From the Thames to the Tweed suspicion gnawed along its way. When the Kaiser came to London or to Cowes and donned the tennis coat or the Admiral's gala dress and associated with English naval officers like a good fellow, everything again seemed in good order. But the joy never lasted long. Softly at first, then more audibly, the question was asked whether the British could afford to wait until Germany would be strong enough to pierce their vitals.

That would be the height of stupidity, answered experts like Lee and Fitzgerald. And thus answered with them the entire nation, whose political instinct is imperturbable.

And then? Listen!

The Franco-British treaty was made contrary to all traditions; prestige was created in Morocco for a foreign power; the heavyweight point for the development of maritime power in the North Sea was transferred; a first installment of \$30,000,000 was asked for new naval bases; the French fleet was invited to a coast visit, and the reinforced canal squadron was assigned to the Baltic for manoeuvres.

With all these measures, England remained fully within the purview of her sovereign rights.

But even in the year 1905 the cajolers and bootlickers were told by wise and sensible admonishers:

"Between Germany and England there was never friendship, will never be

friendship, until Germany has taught England fear or until she has proved unmistakably to Great Britain that she does not propose to conquer the territory, which her expansion necessitates, from British ground.

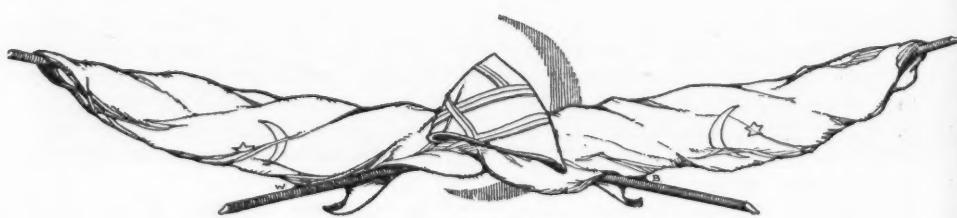
"Pacifist chatter has no effect upon the Britons. Nor has it the slightest effect upon them when we swear that our ships truly and honestly have not been built in order to contend with the island empire for the domination of the seas."

England has no Pitt, or Palmerston, or Disraeli today. England is not governed by the will of the masses, and, as fleets cannot be stamped out of the ground, she can calmly wait until she is still better prepared and has completely recovered from the consequences of the Boer war.

The idea that the English would be deterred by the fear of a Russian army, bravely marching toward India, or let themselves be overrun at the mouth of the Thames, while her Channel ships are manoeuvring in the Baltic, could find room only in the minds of ignoramuses.

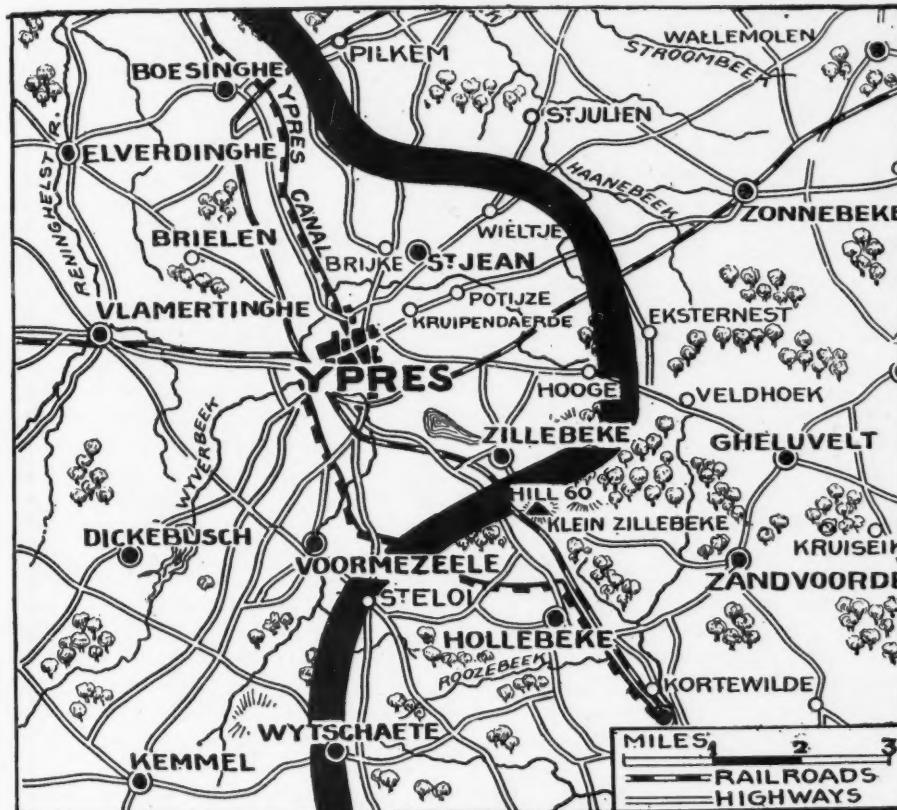
Any power that would quickly weaken the British world power would have had to dare the attempt before South Africa was conquered.

Then England was isolated and hated and confused by the difficulty of an undertaking which had been underestimated even by Chamberlain's commercial genius. Since then she has allied herself in Asia with Japan, in Europe with France, and had to expect from Belgium and from the Scandinavian countries at least a favorable neutrality.



The Western Front

Battles at Hooge, in the Argonne and Vosges—French, British, and German Reports of Fighting on Wavering Lines



Map Showing the Region Around Ypres and Recent English Operations, Recording Advance to Aug. 15, 1915.

ACCOUNTS of ground lost and won along lines that vary little in a war of attrition constitute the record of the past month at Hooge, the village east of Ypres, which has been the storm centre of the British-German engagements; in the Argonne region, where the German Crown Prince has been steadily winning and losing in his efforts to pierce the French line, and in the Vosges.

HOOGHE.

The ground in the village of Hooge was won from the British troops by the

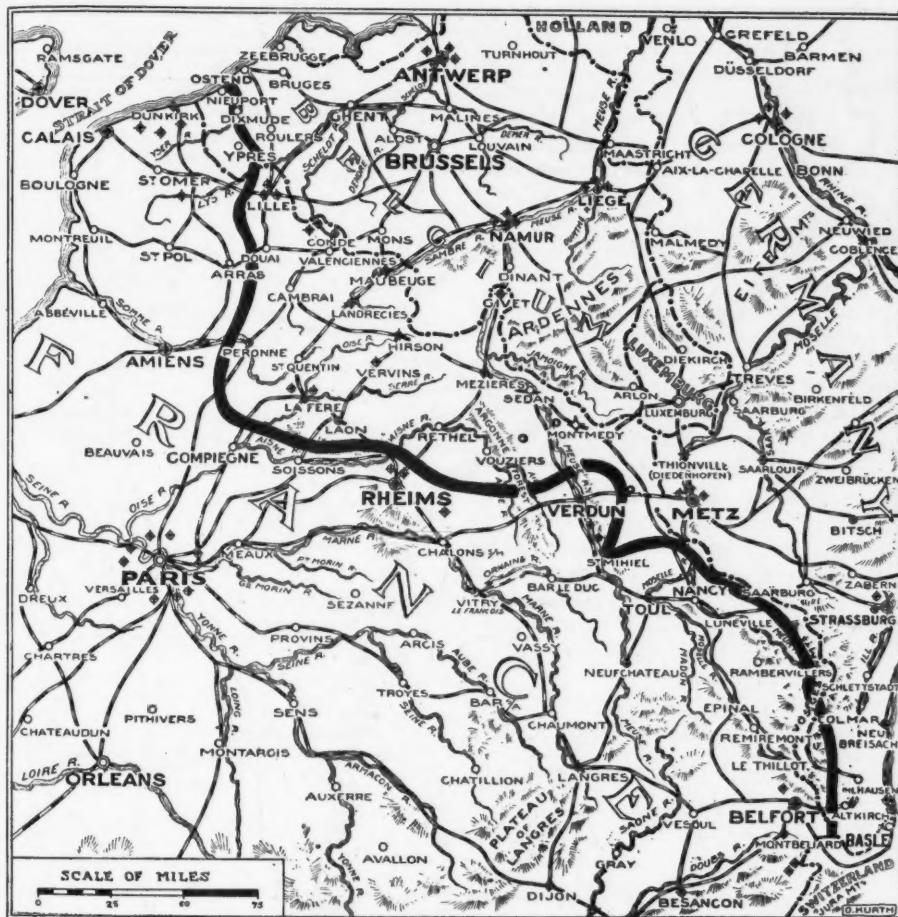
Germans on July 30, the victors, as reported from the British front, using a new device for pouring "liquid fire" upon their enemy. Heavy fighting was again in progress on Aug. 3 on the British front near Hooge, and from that date until Aug. 9 the attacks for recapturing the trenches were continuous, when Field Marshal Sir John French issued this report:

Since my communication of Aug. 1 the artillery on both sides has been active north and east of Ypres. In these exchanges the advantage has been with us.

This morning, after a successful artillery



Scene of the German Crown Prince's Drive in the Argonne, and Westward to Reims.



The British-French Battle Line, Showing Positions on Aug. 15, 1915.

bombardment, in which the French on our left co-operated effectively, we attacked the trenches at Hooge captured by the enemy on July 30. These were all retaken, and following up this success we made further progress north and west of Hooge, extending the front of the trenches captured 1,200 yards.

During this fighting our artillery shelled a German train at Langemarck, (five miles northeast of Ypres,) derailing and setting fire to five trucks.

The captures reported amounted to three officers and 124 men of other ranks and two machine guns.

On Aug. 10 Sir John French reported:

Northwest of Hooge and in the ruins of the village itself we have consolidated the ground gained yesterday, repulsing one weak infantry attack during the night. Yesterday afternoon there was no infantry

fighting, but there was a violent artillery engagement, as a result of which all the trenches in the open ground south of Hooge became untenable by either side, and we have now slightly withdrawn the position of our line which lay south of the village.

This makes no material difference to our position.

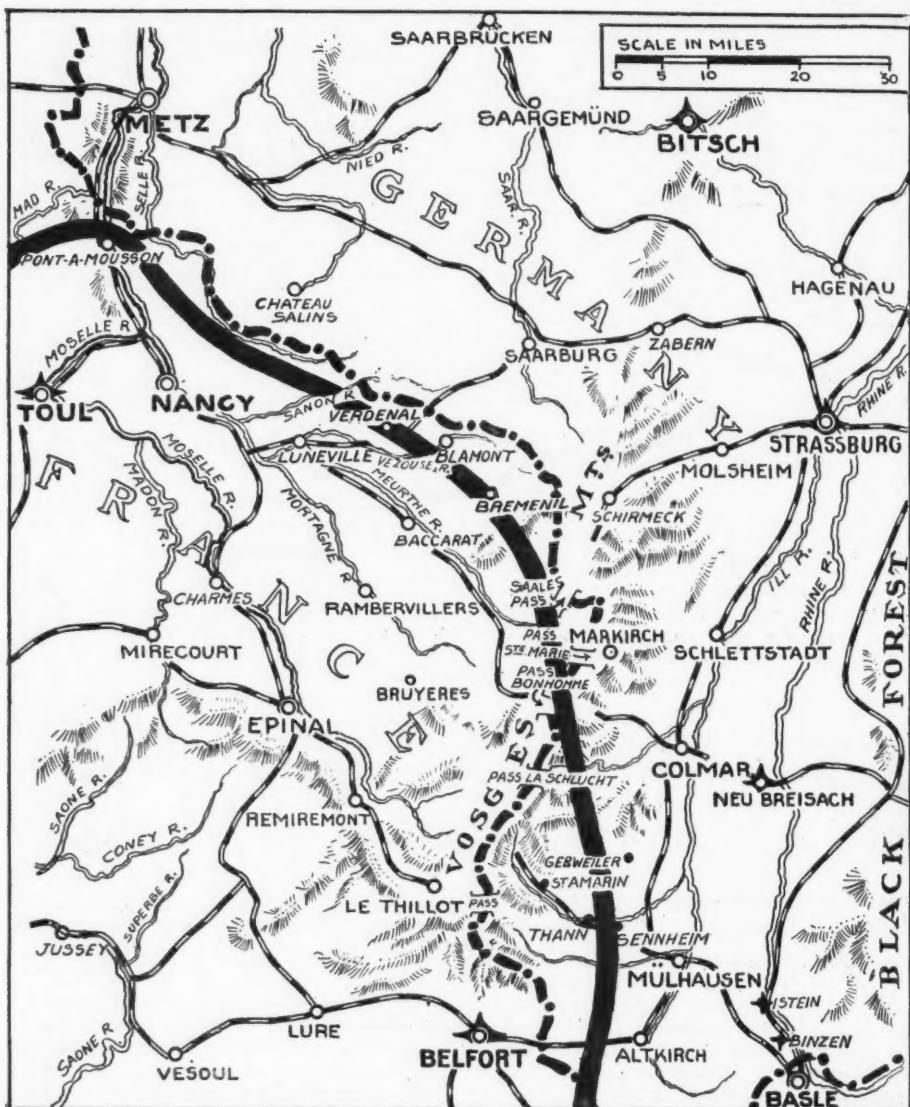
The total number of prisoners captured by us yesterday was 150.

Nothing further of consequence was reported in this area up to Aug. 17.

THE ARGONNE.

The official statement issued in Paris on Aug. 4 said:

In the Argonne the night was full of action. The Germans delivered two attacks, one between Hill No. 213 and the ravine at La Fontaine-aux-Charmes and



Military Operations in the Alsace Region, Showing Battle Line on Aug. 15, 1915.

the other in the region of Marie Thérèse. Our assailants were everywhere thrown back in their trenches by the fire of our infantry and artillery. At Four de Paris and in the direction of Haute Chevauchée there was last night incessant rifle firing between the trenches.

On Aug. 6 the attempts of the Germans to dash from their trenches were reported to be of a particularly violent character; on Aug. 7 the Crown Prince achieved slight successes, and on Aug. 11

the French night report admitted the piercing of the first line of French trenches in these words:

In Artois artillery fighting is reported to have taken place in the sector north of Arras.

In the Argonne the bombardment reported in the previous statement has increased in intensity. A great many asphyxiating shells were used. At daybreak the bombardment was followed by a violent German attack, made by at least three regi-

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ments, against our positions between the road of Binarville-Vienne-le-Château and the Houvette Ravine.

In the centre of this sector the Germans succeeded in penetrating our positions, from which, however, they were driven out by our counterattack during the day. Only a portion of our first-line trenches remained in their hands. The prisoners captured by us belong to the Württemberg Corps.

The reports given out in Paris and Berlin on Aug. 12 said that trenches in the Argonne had been won and lost by the Germans in heavy fighting. The Paris report claimed the recapture of only a part of the ground lost, while Berlin contended that the French suffered heavily trying to hold the positions.

IN THE VOSGES.

The Paris official report of Aug. 7 said:

In the Vosges the enemy several times shelled our positions at Linge and Schratzmannle. Toward 2 P. M. they made an

attack on the Pass of Schratzmannle, on the road from Honneck, which was stopped by our sweeping fire. At the end of the afternoon a new German attack was repulsed by means of a bayonet charge and grenades.

On Aug. 8 the following account of operations in the Vosges was published in Paris:

In the Vosges an attack delivered by the Germans at the end of the afternoon attained a character of extreme violence. It was directed against our positions at Lingekopf and Schratzmannle and the neck of land which separates these two heights. Our assailants were repulsed completely and suffered heavy losses. Before the portion of the front held by only one of our companies the corpses of more than one hundred Germans remained in the network of our entanglements.

In this district, as in the others, the engagements have been far from decisive, and apparently intended to prevent the defensive forces on both sides from being diverted to other fields of action rather than to assume an offensive in formidable degree.

German Reports From the West

Storming of Ban-de-Sapt., and Battles of Les Eparges

Reports from German Great Headquarters, describing in detail the campaign on the western front, are not so frequent as the official French and English reports. Therefore, the following official German accounts of military actions, which are deemed of first importance, possess unusual value.

BAN-DE-SAPT.

The following German Great Headquarters reports concerning the storming of the heights of Ban-de-Sapt in the Vosges appeared in the Hamburger Fremdenblatt of July 1, 1915:

BREAKING out from the line Chatas-Saales, our troops in the middle of September, last year, had stopped the advance of the French at Senones, Menil, and Ban-de-Sapt. On this line our brave Bavarians, together with their Prussian and Badenian comrades, have since then prevented any gains by the enemy. Yet in September our strength had not been sufficient to take from the French also the

height dominating Ban-de-Sapt. It has been the centre of the fighting since then on this front.

The French continually strengthened their works on the top of the mountain and made a regular fortress of it. From it they were enabled to keep the country to a distance far behind our lines continually under infantry and machine gun fire, so that we could reach our forward lines only through approach trenches or at night. We lay half way up the slope of the mountain determined not to go back one step, but rather as soon as our forces were sufficient to seize the top. Thus there was begun an obstinate struggle which, since the end



Perspective Map of the Western Area of Fighting from the North Sea Coast Eastward, Showing the Flanders District.

of the year 1914, brought one piece after another of the French position into our possession.

Every means of fighting at close range was utilized. Day and night the struggle went on above and below the earth. Frequently the trenches ran within twenty meters and less of each other.

Uncommonly strong wire obstacles, to the height of one and a half meters, surrounded the bulwarks of the French and thus divided friend from foe. Only through a maze of ditches formed by the slowly advancing infantry positions could one get to our forward lines. In accordance with their characteristic custom, the



Perspective Map of the Western Area of Fighting from the Meuse to Mülhausen.

tireless Bavarians had here given to practically every trench and every little piece of woods the name of one of their leaders of whom they had grown fond. A French point of support, in which, well built in and concealed behind sandbags, French sharpshooters lay in wait to bag any one who might carelessly ex-

pose himself, they had dubbed "Sepp." Opposite to it stood the Bavarian "Anti-Sepp" with its well-aimed rifles lying also in wait.

Finally, the preparations for the attack had advanced to such an extent that the height could definitely be snatched from the enemy. Long and thorough

preparations had been required for this result. Co-operation of artillery and infantry were prerequisite for a successful consummation of the plan. It was a brilliant success. On June 22, at 3 P. M. sharp, in accordance with watches exactly set right beforehand, the height of Ban-de-Sapt and the village of Fontenelle, lying behind it, in which French reserves were suspected to be stationed, were systematically taken under fire. In unison the "ultima ratio regis," from light field piece to heavy mortar, raised their iron voices, sending into the positions of the enemy their destruction-bringing missiles.

Prussian, Bavarian, Saxon, and Badenian artillery worked side by side. A terribly beautiful scene was here revealed to the observer. At times one could see a black column of smoke ascending house high; then again the shells as they struck sent up whirling through the air brown clouds of earth, mixed with boards and timbers; at other times the whole mountain was wrapped in smoke and dust. Not a living being was to be recognized.

To the French the attack had come so much as a surprise that it had been under way for more than half an hour before their artillery opened fire. According to reports made later by prisoners, everybody had fled to the dugouts at the beginning of the fire. All giving and transmission of orders had ceased. The surprise of the enemy artillery was such that it scattered its fire without plan over the country and in vain felt about for our fire-spouting guns, thundering from all directions. Thus a violent artillery fire was maintained for three and one-half hours. Sharply for 6:30 P. M. the storm was ordered. In an irresistible "forward" the brave Bavarian reserve troops, supported by Prussian infantry and chasseurs, stormed ahead. Prussian and Bavarian engineer troops and a few guns brought up to the immediate vicinity cleared the way for them where necessary. As soon as the enemy had recovered from the effects of our artillery fire he offered stubborn resistance with hand grenades, rifle and machine-gun fire. It availed him nothing.

The foremost storming sections overran four rows of the enemy's trenches, one after the other, and to hold the ground, which was drenched with the blood of their comrades, established themselves on the conquered space with rapid spade work. The sections which followed pulled out of the dugouts whatever was still alive. Most of the prisoners had been stunned and deafened by the bombardment. Many Frenchmen lay buried beneath the ruins of the wrecked dugouts. By 8 o'clock in the evening the dominating height of Ban-de-Sapt was in our possession. Soon thereafter the enemy took our new positions under a lively artillery fire which continued throughout the entire night and toward morning rose to the greatest intensity. In fact, the French succeeded in surprising those of our brave riflemen who had penetrated into a section of trench covered by their overwhelming artillery fire, but the dominant height itself in its full extent remained in our hands.

We had to count upon a counterattack. It was not to be expected that the enemy would leave to us without a considerable exertion of his strength a height which he had held for months at the cost of heavy sacrifices. On the 23d of June toward 9 o'clock in the forenoon, an extraordinarily heavy fire from numerous heavy guns set in against the newly won position. The bringing up of hostile reinforcements was reported. The intended counterattack was imminent. Whence it was to come was plain—the guns stood ready to receive the hostile lines. At 10 o'clock dense swarms of infantry attempted to rush forward from the village of Fontenelle and from the woods westward of the height toward our position, but were so showered with artillery fire even at the very start that the attack suffered a sanguinary collapse. Those that did not fall dead or wounded fled back into the woods or into the village of Fontenelle. The reserves visible there were scattered by our shells falling in their midst.

After this attempt, checked with heavy losses, the enemy ceased from further attacks. The capture of four machine guns alleged in the French official report is

a flat invention. Not a single one of our machine guns was lost.

BATTLES AT LES EPARGES.

The following report is made from the German Great Headquarters concerning the battles at Les Eparges, as printed in the Hamburger Nachrichten of June 30:

When at the end of April and in the early days of May we had succeeded in pushing forward for a considerable distance our positions on the Meuse heights between the village Les Eparges and the Grande Tranchée de Calonne leading from the ancient Summer residence of the Bishops of Verdun, Hattonchâtel, to Verdun, we had to count on the fact that the French would endeavor to the best of their abilities to gain back the ground taken from them at this important point. However, at first things remained fairly quiet there. When, though, the Second French Army Corps, which some weeks before in its vain attacks on our brave troops between the Orne and Combré, especially at Maizeray and Marcheville, had suffered sanguinary reverses was again capable of giving battle, this army corps was placed in readiness for the recapture of our new positions on the Grande Tranchée. Since the middle of June the increasingly heavy French fire from guns of all calibres indicated an intended enterprise at this point. We had not deceived ourselves. When the enemy considered the effect of his artillery sufficient, on Sunday, June 20th, he set his fresh, well-rested troops in motion for the attack on our positions on both sides of the Tranchée.

The French here followed the method, which as a rule they prefer, of sending strong forces in succession against single selected points, often from several different directions. They succeeded finally in forcing their way into a section of our foremost trench, into some connecting trenches leading toward the rear, and even into a small part of our second line. During the same night, from Sunday to Monday, the regiment which had been struck by this forward thrust undertook a counterattack in which every one down to the last man took part. We succeeded, too, in taking

back from the French the portion of the second line they had seized and the connecting trenches, and in doing so captured a number of prisoners. But the enemy did not let up. About noon of the 21st day of June he renewed his attack with fresh forces along the whole line. To the west of Tranchée he was continually, on the following days also, thrown back with heavy losses. To the east of the Tranchée, on the other hand, where the breach he had made still remained in his possession, he succeeded, pushing forward through this, in again winning ground inside our lines. Here, therefore, he had to be thrown out again.

For this task dawn of the 22d of June was fixed upon. The enemy, seemingly, was surprised. He vacated the trenches, leaving behind a considerable number of prisoners. Now, the French took our entire positions under heavy fire, lasting for whole days. For this purpose they had strengthened the numerous heavy artillery which they already had at this point by other batteries of heaviest calibre taken from other parts of the front. They used also in great quantities shells which, upon exploding, developed asphyxiating gases. The effect of such missiles is a double one. They act not only by means of the exploded fragments but also, by means of their gases, render men within a larger radius unfit for battle, at least for some time. To protect themselves against this action where shells of this sort have struck near their own infantry the French in the battles here described all wore smoke masks, [respirators.] * * * With such an enemy we had to contend in embittered hand-to-hand combats during the following days and nights.

The new means of close fighting with their terrible moral side-effects, here, too, again played an important rôle. Here belong especially the mine-throwers and hand grenades of varied construction, these, too, like the artillery shells, in the case of the French developing asphyxiating gases. Yet already on the 22d of June was shown the indisputable superiority of our infantry over the French. Whenever we undertook to attack we could overthrow even much stronger enemy

forces and especially in individual combat drive them out of their positions, however strongly built. Only against overwhelming artillery fire our brave troops had a most difficult task to stand. As soon as they had retaken a piece of trench the enemy's artillery directed against it a murderous fire which it is a physical impossibility to withstand.

In these embittered battles raging back and forth we could not deny our appreciation to the French infantry. Again and again they let themselves be sent forward to the attack, regardless of our very effective artillery and infantry fire, and regardless of the fire of their own artillery, which was laid without any consideration to where the French infantrymen had to carry out their attack. Inconsiderate, too, were the attacking troops, whose ranks were filled again and again from the rear, toward themselves. Again and again they stormed over the bodies of their comrades who had but just fallen, or had fallen in recent days of the battle, and lay in the blood-drenched thickets of the forest. Again and again they used heaps of these corpses as cover against the fire; indeed, even utilized the bodies of the brave fallen as regular breastworks where they were compelled quickly to establish themselves and dig themselves in. Many hundred corpses covered the narrow space between our and the enemy trenches. When, late in the evening of the 24th of June, we definitely secured possession of all the communicating trenches leading to our lost forward line these ditches were filled to the top with French bodies.

For days the French had held out here beside and on the bodies of their fallen comrades. Let it remain unsettled whether self-control or lack of feeling here played the greater part. For us, at any rate, this chamber of the dead was no fighting position. We filled in these trenches and made a common grave of them for the brave ones fallen there.

Nor shall mention be omitted in this connection of the fact that, according to the unvarying reports of all prisoners, the French infantry in the days from the 20th to the 25th of June received no warm food. Though this, like other tes-

timony of prisoners, may not be absolutely accurate and be calculated to awaken pity, yet it should be borne in mind that experience shows that in the reports of prisoners there is usually some truth. The miserable condition of the prisoners confirmed this.

Our attack of the 25th of June came to a stop before that foremost part of our trenches which, to an extent of barely 300 meters, still remained in the enemy's possession. On the 26th of June we went forward to attack to the east of the obstinate battles just described, in the direction toward les Eparges. Not this village, lying in the valley, however, was the object aimed at in this undertaking, but the wooded mountain ridge sloping down toward it, on which the French had for a long time constructed strong defenses. These were to be taken. About noon, after careful preparation, our movement for the attack began. The enemy seemed not to have expected anything of this sort at this place. Without any extraordinary losses and in a comparatively short time, we succeeded in taking the first hostile positions by storm and in an uninterrupted further advance in conquering also the enemy's main position lying behind these. Such of the enemy as did not fall victims to our fire and our bayonets fled down the steep slopes toward Les Eparges, to reorganize themselves there.

Our attentive artillery did not neglect this opportunity to take this village under fire, as well as to block with well-directed shots, the roads leading to it, on which the enemy was bringing up his reinforcements. Shortly thereafter Les Eparges, with the war materials accumulated there, went up in flames. For us the task was now to hold the newly won advantageous position on the point of the projecting mountain southwest of Les Eparges, for we had to reckon with obstinate attempts of our enemy to retake what he had lost. On this very evening of the 26th of June the French counter-attacks began. They continued all night long to the 27th without any success. Here, too, as at both sides of the Tranchée, the French have suffered extraordinarily heavy losses.

However the situation may shape itself here further, the Second French Army Corps and the other French forces brought into action here have neither been able to force the intended break in one line at the Tranchée nor to maintain the dominating height to the southwest of Les Eparges against the surprise storming attack carried on with unparalleled courage by our battle-tried troops.

REPORT CONTINUED.

From the German Great Headquarters by the Wolff Telegraphic Bureau, the following appeared in the Frankfurter Zeitung of July 20:

Our last report of events on the heights of the Meuse closed with the comment that further undertakings of the French for the recapture of the important positions near Les Eparges, which had been taken from them were to be expected. The next day brought the confirmation. Since then the embittered battles there have continued. The terrible effect of the heavy artillery of both sides and of aerial and subterranean mines has converted the battleground at Les Eparges and Grande Tranchée de Calonne, as at Combres, into a chaos of stone heaps, rocks, tree stumps and scrub, interwoven with tangles of barbed wire, which had been shot through, and with destroyed fighting material of all sorts. In between were pits of explosions which had torn up the ground into veritable ravines. Here the task is a heavy one for the defender to find positions in trenches capable of defense, and for the attacker to work his way through this field of wreckage.

However monotonous the following description of the battles at Les Eparges may sound, yet for him who had to live through them they were fearfully exciting and a terribly wearing experience. These battles bear eloquent testimony to the mental and moral worth of our troops, who for days had to endure the hostile fire in their trenches and still hold themselves ready in positions filled in with earth and wreckage to make front against the enemy wherever he might dare to attempt to advance.

After a heavy artillery fire directed

at our position from Les Eparges to beyond the Tranchée, two attacks occurred simultaneously on the 27th of June, at noon, one of them against our newly won positions southwest of Les Eparges, the other to the east of the Tranchée. Both were repulsed. In the evening the enemy again attacked, this time against the whole extent of our north front. This attack also was repulsed.

During the night preceding the 28th the French reinforced their artillery with additional guns of heavy calibre. These were emplaced for concentrated fire on our new position at Les Eparges, and the position at the Tranchée. Then on the 28th in the earliest dawn they opened a murderous fire against our entire forward and supporting lines. Shortly after 8 A. M. they undertook an attack from the Sonvaux ravine against our lines on the ridge at Les Eparges which we were able to repulse without difficulty. Four other attacks made in the course of the day against the same point met with similar lack of success. The day again had brought the enemy very heavy losses, but not the slightest gains. At the Tranchée no attacks were undertaken by either side on this day.

In the night preceding the 29th took place an extraordinarily heavy artillery surprise attack on our positions from Combres to beyond the Tranchée. A French storming operation seemed to be planned. Our fire, however, prevented its execution. Only to the east of the Tranchée the French in the night pushed forward on a narrow front. The attack broke down in our fire. All day long then our positions lay under heavy bombardment. At 12 o'clock noon the enemy then renewed his attacks at Les Eparges. For this he employed especially strong forces, apparently withdrawn from other places. But not even with their help did he succeed in breaking into our positions. This attack, as were three others made in the course of the afternoon, was again repulsed with heavy losses to the French. During the rest of the day and through the whole night the enemy covered our entire positions with an extraordinarily heavy fire. Also all roads leading into the Côtes Loraines, as well as the vil-

lages on these heights and those at their foot on the edge of the plain of Woëvre, which, however, for a long time had not been inhabited by us, were again plentifully showered with fire.

Again on the 30th of June an attempt was made at an attack under continued strong bombardment. Then the enemy apparently saw the hopelessness of his ever repeated attacks. Perhaps, too, his heavy losses or want of ammunition was responsible for the fact that, from the evening of the last day of June onward, his efforts to retake the lost heights decreased. The first of July passed in comparative quiet. Any one, however, who should have approached our positions on the heights of the Meuse as a stranger to the conditions of this sort of fighting might well have believed that new battles were in progress for this much-fought-for point. For even when the fire here slackens down any one who is not accustomed to these uninterrupted battles at close range and to the echoing of the fire of all calibres in these ravines gets the impression of a regular large battle. Neither day nor night can there said to be quiet there. Even as the French in their desperate efforts make every sacrifice to secure gains, though ever so small, that shall in some measure make up for the failures they have suffered there, so we also do not cease to take under effective fire their ever repeated offensive efforts by timely bombardments of the villages in which they gather their troops for the attack, of their columns preparing to storm, and of their trenches of the front and the supporting lines, from which the forces for the attack are rushed forward.

Here the fliers have an especially valuable task. In these wooded hills, which make direct observation extremely difficult and in great part excludes it entirely, leaders and troops must depend on the reports which our brave airmen supply. For hours they circle over the sections assigned to them to be cleared up and report with signs agreed upon in advance every movement of the hostile batteries or of single guns. The enemy, for his part, knows the danger which the hostile fliers brings. He knows quite

well that shortly he will be the object of attentions from the foe's artillery. The repulse of the airmen, therefore, is a task undertaken with zeal by both sides. In addition to the batteries specially assigned for this purpose and to the infantry and machine gun detachments, this task recently has fallen to special fighting aeroplanes.

We have already on another occasion pointed out that the German fliers, undoubtedly, have gained the ascendancy over the enemy's air machines in aerial battles. Here, too, between the Meuse and the Moselle we can record similar success. Recently one of our fighting fliers succeeded in shooting down a French aeroplane in the neighborhood of Essey. Wherever German fighting aeroplanes appear the French fliers, since this and other successes, now without hesitation yield the air and in this admit their inferiority.

On the 2d of July we had opportunity to observe at length the activity of our own and French fliers. As the events of the next following day showed, the enemy had strengthened his artillery for combatting our positions on the Meuse heights, and employed the next day especially in obtaining the range for his new batteries, by firing test shots at our positions and roads of approach with the help of the fliers, in so far as our watchful battle aeroplanes permitted him. We therefore had to count on the continuation of the fighting in this section. During that night, in fact, the enemy increased his fire not only against the points which hitherto had been the main objects of attack, but also against the neighbouring positions on the Combres Heights, and further to the northeast in the plain, as far as Marcheville and Maizeray.

The 3d of July brought renewed infantry attacks, introduced each time by heavy artillery fire, especially with bombs carrying asphyxiating gases, and accompanied by a hail of hand grenades, for the employment of which the Frenchmen latterly show a special fondness. Four times on this day the enemy violently attacked Les Eparges, and as many times was driven with bloody heads into flight.

It then seemed as if the impossibility of penetrating here had finally been realized and all further attempts given up, for the 4th and 5th of July brought only artillery fighting. But again on the evening of the 5th the increasing violence of the enemy's fire gave reason

to expect the repetition of infantry attacks.

After two attempts late in the evening of the 5th to break into our positions had failed because of the watchfulness of our grenadiers, the 6th of July brought heavy fighting throughout the entire day.

Activity at the Dardanelles

British Reinforcements Made to Capture Gallipoli

IN THE ANZAC ZONE.

An Associated Press dispatch from London dated Aug. 11, 1915, made this statement:

WHILE the Russians are fighting desperately to extricate themselves from the cordon of Austro-German troops which is steadily pressing them more closely in Poland, their allies are working feverishly and with considerable success to open the Dardanelles, through which they hope to pour into Russia the much-needed munitions of war.

Since Saturday night, [Aug. 7,] when fresh British forces were landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula, there has been almost continuous fighting on the Krithia Road. In these operations Australians and New Zealanders in the "Anzac" region (a name taken from the initial letters of the words "Australia-New Zealand Army Corps") have co-operated with new forces to the north. Following up the successes of the troops on the Krithia Road and those to the north of the "Anzac" zone, the Australians and New Zealanders took the offensive yesterday and succeeded in trebling the area formerly held by them. Their comrades to the north, who assisted them, made no further progress, however.

These actions are believed here to be preliminary to a much more ambitious attempt which has been planned by the Anglo-French commanders to sweep the Turks before them. Very heavy losses, which already have been inflicted on the

Turks, have had a discouraging effect upon the Ottoman troops, according to reports from Greece.

An official British statement given out on Aug. 11 said:

The latest report from Sir Ian Hamilton states that severe fighting continued yesterday in the Gallipoli Peninsula, mainly in the Anzac zone (on the western side of the peninsula) and in that to the north. The positions occupied were slightly varied in places, but the general result is that the area held at Anzac has been nearly trebled, owing chiefly to the gallantry and dash of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps.

While to the north no further progress has yet been made, the troops have inflicted heavy losses on the enemy, and the French battleship St. Louis is reported to have put out of action five out of six guns in the Asiatic batteries.

A GERMAN REPORT.

In a Constantinople dispatch of Aug. 9 by way of Berlin, transmitted by wireless to Sayville, L. I., on Aug. 11, appeared the following:

Enver Pasha, the Turkish Minister of War, said today that, according to his information, the Entente Allies in their latest operations at the Dardanelles had landed three divisions of troops, comprising about 50,000 men. The losses among them, however, he asserted, had already been very heavy.

Enver Pasha's statement was made in an interview with a correspondent of



Perspective Map, Showing the Situation at the Dardanelles.

The Associated Press. The Turkish War Minister said:

"I am fully confident that we will be able to keep the Allies in check on the Gallipoli Peninsula, even if other large reinforcements are coming. We knew

that the Allies' action of two days ago was due, and we prepared for it, with the result that we were not caught napping.

"According to my information, the Allies landed three divisions, about 50,000 men. No doubt part of them no longer

count, considering the heavy losses they sustained in attacks incident to the new offensive. The allied losses have been very heavy so far in this new attempt to force the Dardanelles."

Enver Pasha had just had a conference with his Chief of Staff at which the final report from the Gallipoli Peninsula operations was discussed. The War Minister seemed in the best of spirits, as he had just received news that a Turkish aeroplane had destroyed a submarine of the Entente Allies near Bulair. Reviewing the events at Sedd-el-Bahr during the last two days, he said:

"The Allies experienced dogged resistance in their attempts to force the Turkish positions at Sedd-el-Bahr. Two regiments attacking our centre there were annihilated with the exception of about sixty men, who were captured.

ALLIED FORCES JOINED.

A special cable from London to THE NEW YORK TIMES reported on Aug. 17:

Evidence of the improvement of the allied positions at the Dardanelles, both on land and sea, is found in a dispatch from Athens published in *The Daily Chronicle* this morning. The announcement that the fleet has been actively co-operating with the landing parties, particularly the latest, that at Suvla Bay, which has joined hands with the forces already in position on the heights of Sari Bair, gives ground for the belief that the allied naval commanders can now afford to disregard the menace of

German submarines which sent them to cover for a considerable period.

The Chronicle's correspondent telegraphs:

"The new successful landing on the Gallipoli Peninsula at Suvla Bay and the manner in which it was effected cannot fail to exercise a moral effect on the enemy. The landing took place on the foreshore in front of Salt Lake. Only a small observation force of Turks was on the spot, the Turks having been led by recent activities and reports to concentrate their forces on the Asiatic side of the Dardanelles and at Smyrna, where they thought attacks probable.

"Our whole landing force, with its ammunition, baggage, and artillery, reached shore practically without opposition and with only very few casualties. The force immediately advanced and quickly seized the positions which it was planned should be taken. There strong intrenched positions were organized. The right wing was thrown out and a junction effected with the left wing of our forces established before Sari Bair. Our new positions threaten the Turks' communications by land with the extremity of the peninsula.

"The enemy eventually brought up forces to attack the newly landed troops, but these were easily repulsed with serious loss. This defeat of the enemy enabled our forces still further to consolidate their positions.

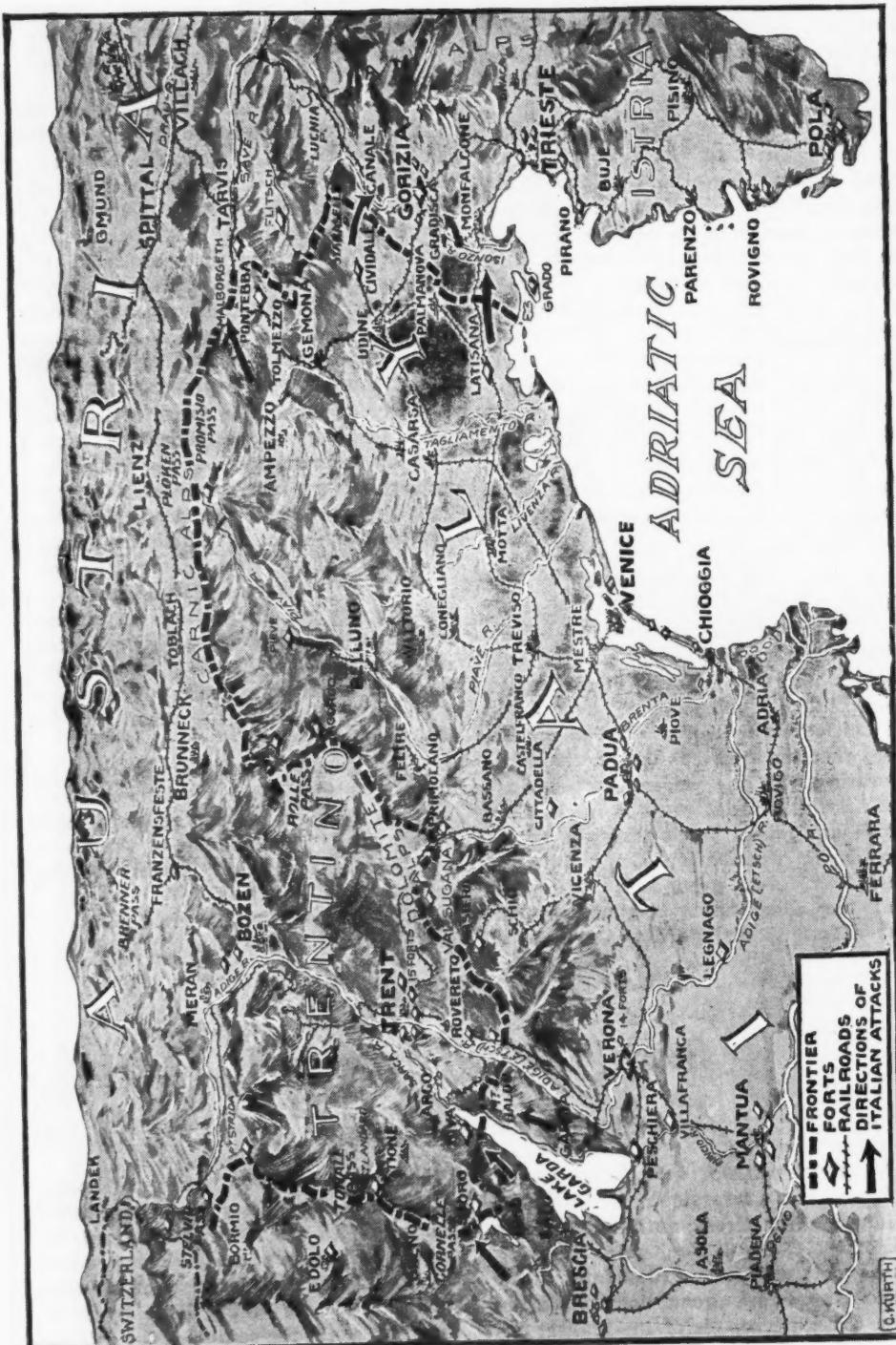
"The fleet during the last few days has been very active."

Stone Coffins Unearthed

[From *The Sphere* of London.]

A French officer, in a letter to his wife, mentions a diversion from shells, that of digging for Greek antiquities in the soil of the Gallipoli Peninsula. The following note will prove full of interest for students of Greek archaeology. "We are on a Greek necropolis of the highest antiquity," he writes, "some five or six centuries before our era. In digging

trenches we come on enormous stones which resound. They are the lids of tombs. With great care (but not always) we remove the covering stone. Underneath is the interior of a stone coffin, which we empty little by little. Grain by grain for centuries the soil has gently intruded. Inside there is a skeleton more or less preserved.



Peranectic Map of Austro-Italian Frontier. Showing Scene of the Recent Military Operations.

Italy's Attack on Gorizia

Positions Consolidated Preceding a Final Attempt on Austria's Fortress

WHILE the movements on the Italian fronts, as reported from official sources, have tended to confirm the objects of the campaign—the neutralization of the Trentino, the holding of the passes through the Carnic Alps, and a strong offensive along the Isonzo from Tarvis and Tolmino to the sea, including the capture of the heights around Gorizia in the centre and the investment of Trieste over the Carso Plateau in the south—little beyond incidentals has been achieved. These incidentals, however, are claimed to be of great potential value to the invaders.

In the Trentino, although the main artery which supplies the territory from Vienna has not been cut, it is announced that the railway from the north to Bolzano and Trent has been bombarded and on one occasion a troop train and its soldier passengers destroyed. In the south the lines around Rovereto and Riva, at the head of the Lago di Garda, have been contracted. The most prominent elevations captured in the vicinity of Go-

rizia have been Monte San Michele, from which the Austrians could bombard not only the approaches to the Carso but also the Italian positions at Gradiška and Monfalcone, and Monte dei Sei Busi on the southern ridge. On the Dalmatian coast a naval force has also captured the islands of Pelagosa (Grande and Piccola) and destroyed the wireless stations there and on the Island of Lagosta.

On Aug. 14 General Cadorna allowed the information to transpire at Udine that a general attack would shortly be made along the Isonzo front which would lead to the early fall of Gorizia and open the road over the Carso Plateau to Trieste. It was added that the General Staff was hopeful that this campaign would be completed early in September.

This may be interpreted to mean that the commanding heights in the region were then in the possession of the Italians, but that a few days must elapse before placing the proper guns on the crests so that their occupation may be rendered effective for a general advance of the field armies below.

"The Glory Hole"

[From The London Daily Chronicle.]

The scene of Lieutenant Smyth's miraculous relief expedition with ten Sikh volunteers, across 250 yards of bullet-swept plain and through a river with a heavy box of bombs, which might have exploded at any moment.

"Praise to our Indian brother, and let the dark face have his due,"

Thanks for the loyal red blood that is flowing like water in France!

Life for a life they demanded, till all their munition was through.

Then—there was more in reserve. So was death, and they leaped at the chance!

British Lieutenant for leader, and ten swarthy Sikhs at his back,

Dragged the huge boxes of fireballs—was ever a deadlier freight?

Facing a fountain of bullets and under a sky shrapnel-black,

Threading a trenchful of corpses and crossing a river in spate.

Two of that noble Eleven won through with their perilous load,

One in the moment of triumph to fall in defending the Hole;

Only the British Lieutenant unscathed on the gun-riddled road!

Yet, has their angel recorded, "Eleven arrived at the goal."

A. W.

The Guarantees of a Lasting Peace

By Count Julius Andrassy

This article should be read in connection with the report that Germany has made overtures for peace with Russia, after her victorious Polish campaign.

Count Julius Andrassy, one of the foremost statesmen of the Dual Monarchy, is the son of a still more famous sire—that Count Julius Andrassy who, with Bismarck and Beaconsfield, engineered the Berlin Treaty of 1878, which contains all the seeds of the present war, beginning with the assignment of Bosnia-Herzegovina to the Austrian Empire, and the constrictions of Bulgaria. The present Count Julius Andrassy has been Minister of the Interior for Hungary, and is a hereditary member of the Hungarian House of Lords. He was born on June 30, 1860. This article by him is taken from the *Revue de Hongrie*, of Budapest.

A PEACE is "good" when it gives to the belligerent State what it desires. It is easier to establish the goals of the aggressors than those of the attacked. Thus, it is clear that for France an advantageous peace would be one which gave her back at least Alsace-Lorraine, and for Serbia a peace that should give her at least Bosnia-Herzegovina and Dalmatia.

As for ourselves, it is harder to indicate the guarantees of a lasting peace. Before seeking them, we must make clear why we are at war.

It is not because we aim at universal domination; we can as boldly say that of ourselves as of Germany.

The exclusive domination of one nation, or of a group of nations, would mark a step backward for civilization as much as for the whole of humanity, and, besides, could not last, because, soon or late, everything is condemned to disappear which does not conform to the interests of progress, or which tends to make permanent the results of a momentary success.

In the war literature of today it is frequently maintained that it is to the interest of humanity and civilization that England and France should come out of the war victorious and mark with the seal of their genius the evolution of humanity; or that, on the contrary, the domination of Germany is rather to be desired, since Germany is the country of the highest civilization.

These are exaggerations which will not bear examination. It is impossible to say to which people humanity owes its

finest progress in the past or which nation is called to render the greatest service in the future.

It is impossible to settle whether Shakespeare or Goethe, Helmholtz or Pasteur, was greatest and has rendered the greatest services to humanity.

There is no "first nation," and even if there were one it would not be desirable that it should set the imprint of its particular genius on civilization. The qualities of any given people cannot take the place of those of others. The general interest demands that progress should be as varied as possible, that the greatest possible number of races should co-operate in the work of civilization, in freely unfolding their genius and their inborn qualities. Humanity needs not great nations only, but little nations also.

We must not forget that Homer and Phidias were the sons of a nation weak in numbers but independent, that the Michael Angelos and Raphaels were born and grew up on the soil of cities which had their separate life, that a Rembrandt and a Petöfi belonged to little nations. It is especially for us Magyars not to lose sight of this great truth, since we are members of a nation which is not willing to lose its identity in another, however great that other may be, and which is convinced that humanity has a stake in its preservation. * * *

I do not wish to enter into questions of detail; I have not in view to establish conditions which would be absolutely necessary for the conclusion of peace; I am not at all weighing the chances of the possible and the practicable. It even

seems to me that in the present war the changes and chances of which cannot be foreseen, public opinion would be wrong to express categorical desiderata and to wish to impose on the Governments stipulations fixed in advance. I shall therefore limit myself to looking at the question from a purely theoretical point of view, and to defining the conditions which, while safeguarding the interests of the Central European powers, would offer the guarantees of a lasting peace, but at the same time I wish to insist on the fact that in politics it is before all with possibility that one should count; it is in basing one's self on the calculation of real forces that one may see whether what one has proposed to one's self is practicable and bears a due proportion to the sacrifices imposed upon the country.

The present war has arisen from three powerful antagonisms—the Franco-German antagonism, the Anglo-German antagonism, and the antagonism between Muscovitism and its western neighbors.

To find the conditions of a "good" peace, we must therefore consider these antagonisms one by one and seek the solution which fits each of the problems which have provoked the conflict. * * *

The Franco-German antagonism goes back to a time when the French and German national consciousness, properly so called, was not yet in existence. * * * One of the goals of this war is to dissipate this ancient antagonism, which is a permanent danger to universal peace. This goal can be attained in two ways—either by an accord between the two countries or by the crushing of France.

The first solution is preferable. * * * If Germany does not profit by her victory to annex new territories, it will be difficult to make the French believe, as they have done in the past, that Germany has dreams of aggrandizing herself at the expense of France.

But if this hope should not be realized and the victories of Germany should only excite anew the hatred of the French for Germany, if they remain in the conviction that Germany is pursuing a policy of aggression toward their country, then Germany will see herself forced to put

an end to this struggle of the two peoples by the final weakening of France.

Bismarck said, as early as 1887, that if Germany was forced once more to draw the sword against France, and came forth once more victorious from the conflict, she would have to knock France out for thirty years, and so act that at least one generation could not bear arms against Germany. "The war of 1870," he said, "would be child's play in comparison with the next war, when they would try to bleed each other white."

Today it is still possible for the French to avoid this fate for their country. The Germans have no hatred for them, and would be altogether rejoiced to remove, by an amicable arrangement, the sword of Damocles which the enmity of France suspends over Germany's head.

They will only swerve from this path, they will only put Bismarck's threat into execution, if France does not give guarantees of a radical change of policy: such would be the conclusion of a separate peace. May God grant that Germany may not be forced to have recourse to extreme measures! The general interest demands that France should submit to the decree of fate, in case her adversaries are victorious, in order to conserve her vital forces, so precious for humanity.

The Anglo-German antagonism has a quite different character. It is of quite recent origin and has no historic causes. * * * There is only one new fact: the economic rise of Germany and the growth of her fleet. These are the only grievances which England has against Germany. The growing prosperity of the commerce of Germany, the rapid growth of her population, and in the same proportion of her naval power—this is what provoked the anger of England, made her conclude the entente, and drove her to take part in this war.

But it is precisely for this reason that the pretensions of England are a peril for the whole world. It is for this reason that the cause of Germany has become that of the freedom of the seas. If England considers as a menace the economic prosperity of one of her neighbors, its export trade, and the creation

of the fleet necessary to assure its protection, this means that she wishes to dominate maritime conditions and bar the way to every nation which is developing.

Therefore, Germany is struggling to break England's guardianship, to force the recognition of her right to become a world power, to possess a war fleet, to spread abroad her colonial commerce. It is hoped that the English in their turn will recognize the legitimate character of these aspirations, and will realize that Germany is much too strong to subject the necessities of her economic growth to the good pleasure of England.

It would be desirable that, in delineating their spheres of influence, the negotiating powers should agree on conditions that would permit Germany to develop in perfect liberty. We hope that England will end by resigning herself to this, when she sees that Germany cannot be conquered, that the Continental Allies will run the risk of being ground to pieces, as in the epoch of Napoleon I., and that a prolongation of the struggle would impose so many sacrifices on her that they would make the war "bad business." But it is possible that England—which for centuries has not been decisively conquered—may persist in wishing to go to the end, "to conquer or die." In this case a durable peace can only be realized by crushing England completely. Europe and all humanity would suffer equally from such an eventuality, for it would be making permanent a sanguinary struggle which could profit none of the belligerents and would find its inspiration in hatred, thirst for revenge, rather than an inevitable conflict of really vital interests.

The third element of the general war is the antagonism which exists between the aspirations of the Russian Empire for universal domination and the vital interests of her western neighbors. The Franco-German and Anglo-German antagonisms did not at first concern Austria-Hungary, and we only became the enemies of France and England because they are the enemies of our friends, but the struggle with Russia is also our struggle; we are, indeed, most nearly touched by it. Therefore, while Germany

will have a decisive rôle in the settlement of accounts with her neighbors to the west, it is we who must have the last word to say in the questions which touch Muscovitism. * * *

It is clear that if we wish for a durable peace we must block the expansion of Russia toward the west and force Serbia to resign herself to the fact that the provinces inhabited by Serbians which form a part of the Dual Monarchy should so remain to the end of time, and to recognize that to seek to make conquests from a power stronger than herself is to commit suicide. * * *

We are the more authorized to believe that, after a complete defeat, Russia will renounce, at least for a long time to come, her policy of expansion toward the west, for a disaster would probably create for her internal difficulties which would make all action in the domain of external politics impossible for her.

We must create in the Balkans a condition of things which will deprive Russian policy of the means of action which she has hitherto used in these countries. * * * At the conclusion of the peace, as well as by our future Eastern policy, every one must be made to perceive that he who is against Austria-Hungary loses thereby, while he who is for us will find this profitable to him.

If we pursue this course systematically and if we fortify our frontiers from the strategic point of view, if we succeed in coming into direct contact with the Balkan States which do not touch our frontiers, we shall be able finally to ruin Russia's dominant and aggressive influence in the Balkans, which will be an added reason for the Czars not to squander their forces in the execution of ambitious projects which are ever less and less realizable. * * *

Even with regard to Italy we should be wrong to allow ourselves to be fascinated by the beauties of nature or to respond to the memories of the past and the suggestions of our just anger. To wish to dismember or subjugate a country whose population burns with a patriotism as ardent as that of the Italian people would be for us a source of weakness. In reason, it can only be a ques-

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tion of certain rectifications of frontier, and not of conquests. Italy will have to indemnify us in cash, not in territory. * * *

In creating in the Balkans an equilibrium of forces favorable to Austria-Hungary, in maintaining and strengthen-

ing Turkish domination at Constantinople and across the sea, we are working for the grandeur of Magyarism and enriching it. * * * In case of victory, the situation of the Hungarian Nation will be more advantageous than it has ever been in the past. * * *

The Quiet Harbor

By CAROLINE RUSSELL BISPHAM.

"No harbor is so sheltered but that the ship of death may sail in."
—Old Scotch Proverb.

Far, far away I just can see
A little boat sail toward the quay.
What does it bring—whose can it be?
It looks so small across the sea,
The cold north-sea that runs, ah, me,
Between my soldier-love and me!

I see it now beyond the lea,
Now near, now far, it seems to be—
Perhaps it brings my destiny;
Perchance it bears the mystic key
That unlocks pain or joy for me.
Oh, bring me joy, not pain—woe's me,
Nor man, nor maid e'er loved as we!
I could not bear his death—but, see,
They hail us—Jamie, where are ye?
And Jock, run quick, here's twice yer fee
If ye bring back good news to me—

Look, look! they wave—they call for me!
They stand with bared heads by the sea!
They've heard bad news—what can it be?
Oh, for wingèd feet that I might flee
As swift as sight across the lea
To see what they have brought to me!

They laid it at the feet of me
Upon the gray sands of the lea,
The long black box that came by sea,
And I cried in my agony—
"God, God, explain the mystery
Of Death!" * * * But silence answered me,
When they brought back my love to me—
Brought my dead soldier home to me!

Magazinists of the World on the War

Condensed from the Leading Reviews

The antagonisms between Germany and Russia are brought into sharp relief by the subjoined extracts from the review articles written by the exponents of the respective nations' causes, while the personal sketch of Russia's new War Minister, a translation of which leads the series of extracts from the reviews of the chief nations in the war, is one of the first presented to English-speaking readers.

General Polivanoff, the New Russian War Minister

[From the Petrograd Niva.]

THE Petrograd Niva ("The Field") gives one of the first Russian sketches of General A. A. Polivanoff, the new Russian Minister of War, who takes the place of General Sukhomlinoff:

The new War Minister, Infantry General A. A. Polivanoff, was born in 1855. He is full of life and energy. His biography shows him to be a profoundly instructed, hard-working man of action.

Completing his studies in the Classical Gymnasium (High School) and in the Nicholas College of Engineering, after a brief service as construction officer in the Second Battalion of Sappers, and in the Grenadier Regiment of the Life Guards, A. A. Polivanoff in 1876 entered the Nicholas Academy of Engineering. But the Russo-Turkish war, (which broke out in the following year,) led him to return voluntarily to his regiment, with which he fought gallantly in the valleys of Bulgaria and in the Balkans; he was gravely wounded under Gorny Dubnyak—a bullet through the chest—and for military excellence he received two decorations, the Cross of Saint Anne of the fourth degree, with the badge "for valor," and Saint Stanislav of the third degree, decorated with swords and with the ribbon. In the year 1878, A. A. Polivanoff returned to the Nicholas Academy of Engineering, and there completed his studies, in the first rank. Returning once more to the Grenadier Regiment of the Life Guards, he entered another military academy in 1885—the Nicholas General Staff—where he finished brilliantly in the year 1888, with the rank of Lieutenant Colonel on the General Staff.

Colonel Polivanoff was then 33. For the next eleven years he worked hard in inconspicuous posts, first as senior adjutant of the Kleff military circle, then as director of the Military Science Committee, and finally as head of

a department of the General Staff. To this period of his activities belongs his important work of military research, "A Sketch of the Commissariat of the Russian Army in the Danubian Theatre of War in the Campaign of 1853-4 and in 1877," (Petrograd, 1894,) marked by the distinction and solidity of its method and the soundness of its deductions. In April, 1899, Colonel Polivanoff was appointed assistant editor, and in August of the same year editor in chief, of the official military organs, the journal, "The Russian Invalid," and the review, "The War Magazine"—and showed himself to be a gifted journalist.

He soon waked up the Russian war periodicals, and his editorial sway of the Russian Invalid and the War Magazine forms the most brilliant period of their history.

Completely changing the former character of these publications, notably broadening their scope, and attracting to their columns the younger literary talent of the army, Polivanoff gave his collaborators ample elbow room for the many-sided ventilation of scientific, departmental, and statistical military questions, and he succeeded in making the specialist military official gazette and magazine interesting to a wide circle of Russian society.

For five years he served the Russian Army and Russian society in the character of a man of letters; in the year 1904 he became a permanent member and director of works of the Grand Committee on Fortifications, in 1905 he was for a short time the Second Quartermaster General of the General Staff, and in the same year General Polivanoff was appointed Chief of the General Staff. In the year 1906 he was appointed to the recently created post of Assistant Minister of War, and at the same time was appointed a member of the Council of the Empire.

It would be of high interest and ad-

vantage to the whole civilized world should it fall to the lot of General Polivanoff to write the Russian history of the present war, as General Kuropatkin, one

of his predecessors at the War Ministry, wrote the Russian history of the Campaigns of Plevna, Lovcha, and Shipka, in the Turkish war of 1877.

Does Russia Menace Sweden

By Nicholas Emilianoff

SVEN HEDIN'S attack on Russia has brought a forceful Russian reply. Sven Hedin bases his attack on the assertion that Russia, to get an open ice-free port, needs to expand toward the Atlantic. He did not look forward to the opening of the Dardanelles; he saw Russia's outlets toward the sea blocked in the direction of the Persian Gulf and the Pacific. The Baltic is also closed. For this immense suffocating empire, he exclaimed, the only possible issue to the sea is across the Scandinavian peninsula. "If I were a Russian," he adds, "I should myself recognize in this policy a vital necessity for my country." Sven Hedin was so possessed by this idea that one might think he wished to "suggest" it to Russia, so eager was he to put Sweden on her guard against this "inevitable danger."

It is easy to understand the effect that this passionate propaganda had on Swedish opinion, creating not so much an aggressive hatred of Russia as a profound apprehension of her aims.

Nicholas Emilianoff, who has given the answer to Sven Hedin in a Swedish pamphlet, is the constructor of the new railroad which Russia is now building between Petrograd and the Murman coast, situated on the Kola Peninsula, north of Finland, on the Arctic Ocean, to the northwest of the White Sea and Archangelsk, at the northwestern corner of Russia. Thus Emilianoff speaks of this region with authority.

He demonstrates that the Murman coast, thanks to the passage of the Gulf

Stream, remains free from ice all Winter, and thus allows unbroken communication by sea with the rest of the world to be maintained all the year round. The natural harbors are excellent and easy to equip. The waters are full of fish, among the best in the world. These regions, hitherto wholly waste, only need a railroad to open them up to civilization and prosperity.

While the White Sea and the harbor of Archangelsk, although situated further south, are blocked by ice during the greater part of the year, the Murman coast enjoys a relatively mild climate, for the warm waters of the Gulf Stream permit no icebergs to approach. If Russia had built this railroad sooner, she would not now be short of munitions. The Murman coast, linked by the new railroad with Petrograd, will, therefore, have a high importance for Russia, strategically, in time of war; economically, in time of peace.

Emilianoff concludes that, given these circumstances, the fears of Russian aggression against Norway and Sweden are unjustified. The Murman coast once utilized, Russia needs no port on the coast of Norway. Then why should she menace the Scandinavian countries, and challenge a conflict with England, which might not look favorably on the creation of a Russian naval base opposite her coasts?

The construction of the new line was decided in part in the month of October, 1914, and in part in January of the present year. Before this date, therefore, there was justification for Sweden's uneasiness.

German War Literature

By a Russian Critic, "Eusis," in Sovremenny Mir
(The Contemporary World)

DURING the first five months of the war there were published in Germany 1,460 books, pamphlets, and reviews (counting their titles, but not separate issues) dedicated to the war. During the same period, according to the reckoning of a Munich professor, more than 3,000,000 patriotic poems were written. If to this we add the fact that the majority of general periodicals which existed before the war have now been transformed into special war journals we must admit that the Germans hold the record for the rapidity and extent of their mobilization of literature for war needs. The Germans themselves are proud of this record, especially in comparison with France, where the presses have not been able to print a tenth part of what is produced in Germany. To study this whole literary output is impossible; at best, one could only measure it by statistics, as so many hundredweight of spoiled paper and printer's ink, or express in square miles the extent of the pages consumed by this war literature. There is no doubt that in time German lovers of statistics will carry out this task, and we need only await that happy day, conscious that, taken as a whole, the German "Kriegs literature" deserves no more delicate characterization. This literature is, for the most part, apologetic and polemical. The subject of the apologetics is: Germany and her rulers; the method of apology is every distortion of thought and fact within the power of a man who is ready for anything and despairs of everything. The polemics are of the same kind: without measure or bounds, without the sense of responsibility, without sparing even their own honor. They say that Danton, in controversy with the Girondists, exclaimed: "I spit upon my honor, if only France may be saved!" Almost all Germany is now in the same

mood. And to this mood one cannot apply ordinary human standards. The critic's problem may be, neither an estimate of this literature nor a controversy with it, but only the selection from it of that part which continues the normal work of thought, not yet quite distorted by delirious ideas, but which is trying to understand the situation created by the war, to show the nation its problems, to remove the difficulties of the war, to explain its causes, to try to divine its issue, and so forth. It stands to reason that, in its service to society, the war literature of Germany, as of every other country, is in many ways different from the literature of a time of peace. Even in the most tranquil people, the temperature and pulse do not remain normal at such a time. But precisely these perturbations in the normal development of thought have a special interest, making clearer the meaning of the more important complexes of the nation's life—of course up to the point where the writer goes completely crazy, when criticism must give place to psychiatric diagnosis.

The war literature consists chiefly of pamphlets. A book is a rarity. Only military statistics run to fat books. And this is natural. The time for scientific analysis has not yet come. And a nation which is carrying on a contest, not for life, but for death, does not need, and does not recognize, scientific analysis. It demands that thoughts should be pelted at it, like bombs, in rapid succession, in sufficient quantity, and sufficiently concentrated. What is now demanded of an idea is not its scientific soundness, but its ballistic quality, and the effectiveness of its impact. It is all one whether that idea is conservative or ultra-democratic; it must possess such qualities as will be significant in an atmosphere of bursting bombs. Defense and attack are carried out by the same

means, and raise equal quantities of dust. In their war literature the Germans have been true to their great benefactor organization. In Germany there are now fewer people who stand alone, or who walk alone, than in time of peace. There are hardly any critics, and this, if you wish, is the most characteristic trait of human thought in time of war; extraordinary credulity, a proneness to accept without criticism any and every thought, if only it tends in the desired direction. War creates a mass of Utopias. The future will criticise them.

Another characteristic trait is the extraordinary contagiousness of ideas. People, crowding together more than usual, feel that they belong to the mass, and need each other's support. They crowd together, and, where the way is opener, where the road is wider, where there is more fight, whether natural or artificial, there the crowd takes its way.

War literature must be popular in form. War literature is a word of command. And in a word of command, the most desirable qualities are lucidity, brevity, and definiteness of direction. You cannot command like this: if such and such facts are so and so, then, if

the remaining conditions are unchanged, and so on. A command of that sort is useless. For this reason, even the most moderate and undecided minds have now become firm and decided. For this reason, many who were leaders in time of peace have left the stage. They have yielded their places to others, perhaps less thoughtful, less talented, less conscientious, but at the same time more definite and decided—sometimes even impudent and shameless. This is seen in every region. Among the conservatives, the talented Delbrück has become almost silent, and the almost talented Schiemann has become altogether silent, but, in compensation, Baron von Zedlitz and the upstart Hetsch have suddenly become the leading minds of conservative politics. Among the liberal professors, most conspicuous are Franz Liszt and Sombart; on the other hand, Brentano and Schmoller have grown too old for such a stormy time, and in the strenuous activities of national economic science and practice their names are hardly heard. Among the Social Democrats, Kautzky has almost retired into the shade, while Heine, Schiemann and even a certain Lentsch have suddenly become the enlighteners of the multitude.

"Russia on the Way to Revolution"

By Dr. Theodor Schiemann,

Professor in Berlin University.

THIS very interesting and unusually well written pamphlet by Dr. Schiemann is an excellent example of the kind of literature Germany produces in such abundance, to mold German public opinion concerning the war. Dr. Schiemann, who is a personal friend of the Kaiser, holds that the work of revolutionary propaganda has been carried on in Russia by wounded men sent back from the front:

All the thousands and other thousands who returned home, discharged as no

longer fit for service, everywhere related the same thing in town and village, that they were badly treated and badly led, that the officers reveled and caroused, and refused to go into battle. The poor soldiers were knouted by the Cossacks, when they did not wish to go forward, and forced into action by machine guns and artillery. They described how they had to wait in the trenches without weapons, until rifles were available for them, because their comrades had been killed, and what a contrast there was in the camp of the Germans. How superbly they were treated, how well they were all taken care of, how the officers were at once brothers and fathers to their men,

and how fearful they were in battle. "To fight victoriously against the Germans is impossible!" That was the refrain.

Therefore they set themselves to foment a revolution. And the same thing was going on at the front, so that, by last Christmas, from a fifth to a quarter of the army was ready for the "uprising."

Since then this movement has made even more rapid progress—for the revolutionary propaganda has been pressed uninterruptedly—particularly since the best elements of the army, the German peasant sons of the colonists, perhaps 200,000 in number, aroused by learning that, in accordance with the Czar's law of February, 1915, their families had all been given over to annihilation, have been waiting in unspeakable bitterness, with eager malice expecting the dissolution, and determined to surrender at the first opportunity.

Dr. Schiemann thinks that, under these circumstances, Russia will be eager for peace, and that, should she succeed in obtaining peace from Germany

the whole blame for the miscarriage of the war will be laid at the door of France and England, and on the non-Russian races, the Jews, Germans, Estonians, Letts, Lithuanians, and Poles; these will be expropriated, expelled, annihilated, and the Germans in Russia will suffer terribly.

For these reasons, Dr. Schiemann thinks an early peace with Russia is expedient, from the standpoint of Germany. Dr. Schiemann is also author of "How England Prevented an Understanding With Germany," and to the same series of pamphlets Dr. Richard Grasshoff has contributed "The Guilt of Belgium."

The Fight for Constantinople

A German View

By G. Ast

WRITING in the Socialistic Neue Zeit, (The New Time,) Herr Ast naturally tends to find economic explanations for events which appear to be purely political. In spite of this bias his views are both original and interesting, and at any rate suggest additional factors in what is, without doubt, a complex and very important question. Herr Ast begins by searching for the motives which led Italy, after many months' hesitation, finally to enter the war. The time did not seem propitious:

On both the western and the eastern front the state of affairs was such that there was no immediate inducement for Italy to depart from her previous policy of waiting. It was rather the contrary. So far as the inducements and motives which have brought about the intervention of Italy lie outside that country they should only be sought in the Turkish theatre of war and in the development of affairs in the Turkish Orient. The Dardanelles adventure of the Triple Entente powers, which involved the question of the partition of Turkey, thereby so raised the

war fever of Italy that the elements which wished to spare Italy the horrors of war were defeated. On the other hand, from the Dardanelles adventure there has arisen in the Near East a decisive contest for power, which has compelled England and France to strain every nerve to win over Italy and the Balkan States, and in this way to save the situation for themselves. Therefore it was the inducements, terms, and threats of the Triple Entente that finally compelled Italy to go to war. The urging of the policy of expediency of the Italian commercial class and the proceedings of the Triple Entente powers set before Italy the question: Now or never.

How high was the price for which the ambitious Italian commercial class sold the peace of Italy and the lives and treasure of the Italian masses to the insatiable Moloch of war we do not know. That the promises and threats of the Triple Entente were not significant we may conclude from the fact that the great offer of Austria was not able to outweigh them. The case of Italy and the pressure on the Balkans are examples of the haggling, the tortuousness, the corruption, of the secret diplomacy of existent States.

So far as the Balkan States are concerned the chief obstacle which has prevented their intervention has been in gen-

eral the circumstance that no one of them could, or can, take the momentous step alone. For any of the Balkan States a separate entry into the war would be in the highest degree dangerous; for these States are so hostile to each other, because of the last Balkan war, that all attempts to bring them to a common understanding have, up to the present, failed. But here we must not overlook the main factor—as so often happens. The circumstances mentioned have kept the Balkan States from making a separate entry into the

war and have made a previous mutual understanding among them an indispensable condition precedent, but the antagonisms between the Balkan States and the political developments in the Near East by no means preclude such an understanding in the future. Precisely the mutually outbidding offers of the warring powers, which have up to the present entered the Balkan region and Turkey, as if they were the authentic lords of these lands, may presently lead the Balkan States to a mutual understanding.

The Health of the Armies

[From *The Lancet of London*.]

A review entitled "A Year at War: The Health of the Armies," declares that in no previous war has such recognition been immediately extended to the value of medical assistance, and this "has been the attitude both with our enemies and with all the allied nations." Of the Germans it says:

We have learned enough from various sources of the organization of the German Army to appreciate that the German treatment of their sick and wounded has been very thorough, even though on many occasions their prisoners have had a right to complain of the harshness of their captors. The German military medical service has been from the first helped by elaborate preparations, made, we presume, in expectation of the war which has eventuated. The possible wastage of men from untreated wounds and sickness or unprevented epidemics was carefully guarded against.

The Austro-Hungarian soldiers were not so well guarded against infection:

Medical service in the Austro-Hungarian Army has apparently been much less satisfactory, and at various points here epidemic diseases—typhus, typhoid, and cholera—have made their appearance. The outbreaks, however, seem to have been met and cut short with promptitude, and considerable powers of strong and prudent administration have been displayed by the authorities at Vienna and Budapest. The comparative freedom of the Turks from epidemic illness has been remarkable, and we are inclined to think that with regard to Constantinople we do not know the true story.

Among the Allies, the condition of the Russian troops, at first a matter of great

concern and menaced by the peculiar problems of living and transportation over vast distances, showed after all "a good bill of health throughout a terrible year." On this subject *The Lancet* says:

The recruiting of the army, the transport of stores, the collection and dissemination of material for war, and so on, have all suffered in Russia from the immense distances which have to be traversed either by mobilized troops or dispatched goods, and for the time being Russia is suffering severely for what is not unpreparedness, and is certainly not inefficiency, but rather is an unmanageable geography. The medical men and the hospitals which they were destined to serve when not with the troops at the various fronts, being in those centres which possess a railway service, the medical side of the Russian military administration has been comparatively good, while from various correspondents we have heard of the unstinted attention paid to the wounded by the voluntary nurses and civilian medical men who have had charge of numerous cases.

The story of Serbia is a triumph of preventive medicine, and the United States and Great Britain between them may lay claim to the credit:

There was a time when the Serbians, who had valiantly beaten off huge crowds of invaders, looked likely to perish en masse from disease, and the stories of the epidemics of typhus at the beginning of last Winter, terrible as they were, are now known to have by no means exaggerated the real plight. Serbia was largely without hospitals or doctors when epidemic disease became added in the horrors of war. American generosity, the British Red Cross Society, and the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, and private charity

alike came to the rescue; hospitals were run up, the sick were segregated and treated, crusades of cleanliness were inaugurated, and with something of the same rapidity with which disease got a grip upon the country that grip was made to relax.

The allied troops in France and Belgium have not been so free of epidemics that prompt and vigorous treatment could be dispensed with. On this subject *The Lancet* remarks:

On the western front there have been several rather smart epidemics of typhoid fever, but neither in the French, British,

nor Belgian lines was the disease ever allowed to make grave headway, the policy of preventive medicine and the expert advice of sanitarians combining to keep the outbreaks under. The French Army has throughout been practically free from this scourge. In common with the German Army there was much suffering in the lines of the Allies from exposure in the trenches during the Winter. The cold and wet did not, however, produce the amount of pneumonia or rheumatism that was anticipated, and among the British soldiers the principal cause of disability was "trench-foot," affecting those who had to spend long days and nights in trenches permanently filled with semi-freezing mud.

General Botha and the Kaiser

General Louis Botha, speaking in Cape Town at a banquet given in his honor by the citizens, said that one of the most interesting discoveries in German Southwest Africa was a map showing the redistribution of the world "after the Peace of Rome, 1916." It placed the whole of Africa south of the equator as a Greater German Empire. There was a small portion segregated as a Boer preserve.

This and other indications of the same character, said Botha, showed the German designs upon the Union of South Africa, and how much faith could be placed in their word. It was established that the Boer rebel, Maritz, had sent a delegate to German Southwest Africa as long ago as 1913, and had received an encouraging reply. Before the European war broke out the Boer rebellion was brewing, and, in the circumstances, Ma-

ritz sent a delegate to inquire how far the rebels would be able to obtain assistance in artillery, arms, and ammunition, and how far the independence of South Africa would be guaranteed.

Then correspondence took place between the Government of German Southwest Africa and the Kaiser. The Kaiser's answer was as follows:

"I will not only acknowledge the independence of South Africa, but I will even guarantee it, provided that the rebellion is started immediately." "When one hears such guarantees," said General Botha, "one feels inclined to say, 'Poor Belgium!' Thank God their designs have been frustrated, thanks to the people of this country. So long as the people of South Africa maintain their honor we need not fear the future."

The French Magazines

A LITERARY REVIVAL.

French critics believe that their country is on the threshold of a great literary revival that shall have a universal appeal, like that of the eighteenth century. Surely they must be right about the revival: the New France which has revealed herself on the battlefield, as well as in the Chamber of Deputies, the Cabinets of

the Ministers, and the sentiment and work of the people must find expression. But will the appeal be universal?

One of the first signs of an attempt to make it so is the appearance of a new monthly magazine published simultaneously in The Hague and Paris. It is called *La Revue de Hollande*, and is to be devoted to matters literary, artistic,

and documentary. The first number is a superb octavo of 150 pages, printed in large, clear type on linen paper, inclosed in a parchment paper jacket. The illustrations are fine woodcuts and a few portraits in half-tone—just as half-tones should be when a very fine screen is used. In explaining, but not attempting to excuse, the fact that the review is printed in the French language, the editors mention the Dutch contributors to the Great Encyclopaedia and show the bonds that have always connected the artistic and poetical life of the Low Countries with French letters. Besides, all Dutchmen know French and have preserved many of its eighteenth century traditions better than they have been preserved in France herself.

The opening article is by Dirk Coster. It is a magnificent review of Dutch literature, various phases of which will be treated of in subsequent papers. Henri Malo writes on the famous battles of the Yser in the past, and Edzaed Falck on "The Princes of Orange." Emile Verhaeren has an essay on "The Past of Flanders." Naturally, Belgium is not forgotten. Louis Pierard writes on "From One Belgium to the Other," introduced with a clear and dispassionate exposition of the real causes underlying the defense of the country against Germany's invasion and how a new Belgium must be inevitable, merely as a matter of evolution, when the German scourge shall have passed. Meanwhile the Belgians are working in silence and by the grace of God:

In spite of the most careful guarding of the frontiers, many young men, at the peril of their lives, left the country—only to come back with the army from France and England. And those who remain are a source of encouragement and help to each other. These Belgians, who write from time to time to their kinsmen in the land of exile, convey, in spite of the censor, more than the fact that they have the best of news from Aunt Victoire and Cousin François.

A review of the most important literary, artistic, and biographical events of the world occupies several pages at the end of *La Revue de Hollande*.

The *Mercure de France*, now changed from a fortnightly to a monthly publica-

tion—"but only during the war"—in "Montparnasse et la Guerre," by Claudien, presents in the August number an exposition of the formative influences of the French literary revival noted above. "It is even in the humanity and spirituality of this revival that the advocates of the impossible Kultur may find the inspiration for new life and hope."

GERMAN "KULTUR."

We find this Kultur treated of from several points of view in other articles: "The Pan-German Paradox," by G. Vacher de Lapouge; "Carlyle and the German Empire," translated by E. Masson from the English of David A. Wilson; "The Errors of Force," by Aurel, and "A Revision of German Philosophic Values," by Péladan. M. de Vacher writes:

Like Sparta and Japan, Prussia has ever lived under a régime of artificial survival of the fittest, which has subordinated to the interests of the State and King those of the individual. Her Constitution has come from decrees. From that have been evolved her rigid character tainted with socialism, and this paradox of an individualistic race in which individuals abdicate all rights before the State.

And the cause of it all? Down to the twelfth century "Prussia was still inhabited by the savage tribes of the Lithuanian race, living by hunting and fishing, idolaters and man-eaters." Two forces combined to change their habits, but not their spirit—Christianity and the Brandenburgers. The first taught them fear of superiors; the second that these superiors were material. Then came the mobilization of the forces thus disciplined under Frederick the Great, which paved the way to Jena, to Sadowa, Sedan, and to Versailles.

With this foundation there has been formed a mental attitude which we can hardly understand, imbedded in the character of the race by an inflexible education. This mental attitude has inspired books which for generations have made Germans think in the Prussian way, and so little by little has made the German nation, and then the State.

The author quotes from German writers to show how every phase of private and public life, every expression in the arts, finally conformed to the Prussian

rules of thought and conduct, until it became inevitable that those whose very existence depended upon these rules must try, in sheer egotistical desperation, to apply them elsewhere:

The Pan-German paradox is therefore from the point of view of anthrosociology, a unique phenomenon which is entirely German. It has only an incomplete knowledge of this science, but this very incompleteness produces most terrible results, as are revealed by the 7,000,000 dead or wounded, the billions of wealth destroyed, and civilized countries shaken to their foundations.

It is a question whether Carlyle, in introducing certain German thinkers and writers of verse and fiction to English readers, wished to exploit a curious discovery, or whether he really thought he was adding something to the heritage of Bacon and Shakespeare. "Carlyle and the German Empire," while not solving the problem, gives us data from which deductions may be made and a working hypothesis established thereon.

On "The Errors of Force" Aurel writes:

If war is the "judgment of God and of force," as Proudhon says, we must conclude that a war without results which are sufficient for Germany must have been, for the originators, a mere "brain storm," and not a matter of vital necessity—the satisfying of a "holy appetite" of a people who must slay and despoil in order to live—as they have been made to believe by Treitschke, Mommsen, Giese-brecht, &c.

The author shows that the German creed of force cannot possibly prevail, simply because it is contrary to all human life, and human life will not permit itself to be controlled by force alone. Force in human life is merely one element in the complex fabric of progress, and history has shown that where it was regarded as an end in itself it has been annihilated by itself. Force of itself never proved anything but its power to destroy; least of all has it proved the right. And so the author adds that the Romans who conquered the barbarians by force only proved their right in so far as they planted justice where injustice had hitherto prevailed. They, in turn, were conquered by the barbarians of Central Europe, and then both were conquered by Christianity.

The war, among other great things, writes Péladan, has given one the opportunity tranquilly to examine the claims of German art and philosophy and see if they be worthy of the position the world has hitherto assigned them. Have Kant and his disciples, Wagner and his, made the world better and a happier, a more joyful, place in which to live? To be sure, he says, Kant freed knowledge, just as the religious reform had the conscience. But what then?

Doubtless Kant did not aim the cannon which destroyed the Cathedral of Rheims, any more than Jean Jacques Rousseau manipulated the lever of the guillotine; but they fabricated the brains of the artillerists and the Terrorists. A philosopher owes his fame less to what he says than to what he implants in the mind. He sows, and people judge him by the harvest.

What will be the harvest of Kant, Schelling, Hegel, Schopenhauer, Herder, and the rest?

THE WAR'S DURATION.

In *La Revue Hebdomadaire*, Gabriel Hanotaux has an article on the duration of the war. It is not enough, he says, that military forces should be mobilized. That has been done. The civil forces must also be mobilized, for the victory will not be the result of a glorious combat, but will belong to the last battalion, the last platoon, the last breath of will, the last effort of courage; and he quotes Lord Kitchener, who said: "Our forces must go on ceaselessly increasing, just as those of the enemy ceaselessly diminish."

This, says M. Hanotaux, applies not only to the military, but to all material, physical, and moral strength which has been mobilized for the war. The war has taught many things to the Allies which Germany knew and had prepared herself for—transit, ammunition, and other material necessities for a gigantic campaign—and which are now being put into perfect practice by the Allies. Germany's failure to get to Paris in October was a salutary lesson. Others have been learned.

But how will it all end? I am not in a position to answer. But first of all I would ask that you pay attention to actualities, and not to words.

In principle, he says, this war is a usurious war. It will last a long time, possibly a very long time. Engines wear out and must be replaced, like men. The taking of Constantinople will have an immense material and moral effect; but this must not be exaggerated. Two or three millions of Teutons have already been slain. But that fact must not be exaggerated, either. Nor must the appearance of Greece, Rumania, and Bulgaria on the side of the Allies, any more than the entry of Italy gave a sure promise, as many believed, of shortening the war. All these elements are contributive and cumulative, but the forces against which they are contending are

still infinite. It is no exaggeration to say, however, that their limit will soon be observed.

As for us Frenchmen, writes Raphael George Lévy in an appeal on behalf of the nation for gold:

At present no Frenchman should keep a goldpiece in his house. He can employ it in two ways. He can buy State bonds or the stock of the National Defense; or he can exchange it for national bank notes. In both cases he will act like a good citizen. * * * All our funds must be mobilized under one form or another, just as General Joffre concentrates our armies on the frontier. Let us not hesitate to fulfill a duty which costs nothing, which can, on the contrary, bring in an ample return, and at the same time render easy the most happy result for the country.

Italian Magazinists

AN ECONOMIC LEAGUE.

The *Nuovo Antologia*, the most serious and important of Italian reviews, published in the middle of every month at Rome, opens its July 16 number with an article by a certain famous political economist, now a member of the present Government, who for years has written under the pseudonym of "Victor." The current article is entitled "The Economic League of Victory and Peace." The writer says that the time has arrived for the nations allied against the Teutonic empires and Turkey to form a league which shall not only shorten the war but which shall re-establish peace with justice for all and upon a permanent basis. The program of the original Entente powers to which Italy has given adhesion is defined as follows:

1. The independence of little States, particularly Belgium.
2. The affirmation of the principle of nationality to the future demarkation of Europe.
3. The assignment to each State of exact geographic and military boundaries on land and sea, to the end that it may live in security and tranquillity.
4. The demobilization of the German military, which would otherwise continue to threaten the peace of the world, ruin

nations with war expenditures, and restrict every economic and social progress.

To these conditions, says the author, there should now be added an indemnity which Germany must pay for what she has destroyed on land and sea. But all this is not sufficient; the economic future of Germany and Austria must be considered as well as the rights and obligations of neutral nations, for it is necessary that when the war ends that the business of the world should be resumed not only within the shortest possible period but that such resumption should be brought about with the least possible confusion and waste. For that reason three economic aspects must be viewed:

1. Economic conditions of the States already belligerent, the Entente powers on one side and the Teutonic empires on the other.
2. Conditions of the allied States among themselves.
3. Conditions of the allied States with neutral countries.

No country more than Italy, says "Victor," has sought to attain an economic ideal which should promote social solidarity and at the same time assure the freedom of exchange. But the war brought to the attention, as nothing else could possibly have done, the lengths to which Germany and Austria had gone to

rupture not only international good fellowship but also international economics.

When information of the three foregoing groups of conditions shall have been ascertained the author suggests the following international economic program:

1. A central international office for the public debt of the allied States.
2. A federation of all loan banks.
3. An association formed among all the great banks of deposit and savings.
4. The establishment of an international standard of discount and exchange.
5. Commercial treaties, with reciprocal tariffs.
6. Navigation treaties, with reciprocal privileges.
7. Improvement in fiscal, postal, telegraphic, and telephonic communication.
8. A confederation of railways, &c.

After such an economic system shall have been examined in the light of European conditions the author would then apply it abroad. Here he takes for an illustration the example evolved by the growth of the British Empire, which, with a few alterations, would be the ideal sought. In this way he deals with the European colonies in Africa, America, Asia, and the Pacific, and then with the independent countries in these regions, showing the enormous waste among the colonies, the obstacles to their development, and their lack of enterprise—all due to the fact that an understanding was lacking among the mother countries in Europe. He shows by statistics and deductions made from tables of exports and imports how both the producer and the consumer could have been measurably benefited if even a knowledge of needs and productive ability had been exchanged between the European colonizing nations in the past.

His treatment of the emigration question is entirely new, although based upon long-recognized political and economical principles. Too much in the past has been left to chance. Emigration has brought forward questions which have been dealt with as they came up, whereas they should have all been settled before emigration began. Formerly emigrants fleeing from religious or political persecution sought new lands where freedom of conscience and action had

been guaranteed or where they thought they could establish it for themselves. These were followed by emigrants moved by economic reasons. The latter did not go where they were most needed, but where conditions were most easy and the monetary rewards the largest, so that very often their appearance changed the conditions which had obtained before their arrival. Much capital has been wasted in attempting to apply it to these new conditions when it should have been applied elsewhere in order to invite emigration. Emigration is not a matter in which only two countries are concerned—the country of departure and the country of arrival—it concerns all countries which have financial or commercial dealings with the two directly interested. Emigration, if unguided, will continue to flow along the lines of least resistance to where life is easiest and labor lightest and the rewards theoretically higher. In the meantime:

It is difficult to conceive how the States of South America—Argentina, Brazil, Chile, or Peru—can prosper as they have in the past without the aid of regulated capital, navigation, trade, and emigration from England, France, Italy, &c. An economic crisis would injure them severely.

Hitherto each European country has exploited South America according to its own immediate benefit, real or imagined. Many things have been withdrawn because it was believed they were useless; others have been put forward only to find that they were useless. A better understanding among the suppliers of capital, commodities, and emigrants would have obviated all that.

The author then declares that the United States will play a still more important rôle than she has hitherto played. He outlines the past history of this country and shows how in enterprise, morality, and restraint it has given lessons to the world. All these things contribute to make the United States an example for all.

What a spectacle, says the author, has been offered by Germany's violations of all international precedent and law, which finally found expression in the sinking of the Lusitania, and the moderate, restrained method pursued by the

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United States in dealing with this catastrophe, while at the same time emphasizing the fact that international obligations, at least in so far as they concerned humanity and the lives and property of neutrals, must be made to prevail!

The author does not look for the armed intervention of the United States, but he believes already its moral intervention on the grounds of humanity has had a salutary effect.

The Economic League of the Allies would offer to the United States an easy but most powerful means to develop a decisive and rapid action in the vast European conflict and toward its happy conclusion. The spontaneous participation of the United States in the league on the side of the Allies would gather into the league itself such a colossal complex of economical forces which would crush any and all resistance. Thus the United States could, without armed intervention, vindicate and consecrate in Europe and in the world those principles of liberty, humanity, and justice which form the origin of the United States themselves, and which no brutal or barbaric force, no militarism, no matter how well organized, could ever obliterate from the history of nations.

GERMAN AND ITALIAN CULTURE.

With a full consciousness of how Germany and Austria have tried financially, commercially, and politically to exploit Italy for their own benefit, while injuring not only Italian industry but taste and feelings, Guido Manacorda contributes an article on "German and Italian Culture." On this theme the readers of CURRENT HISTORY are already pretty well informed. Many side lights are thrown on the long struggle between Latin and Teutonic culture which began in Caesar's time and has now been resumed with the same ideals in conflict.

PROVISIONS FOR WAR.

Ezio Bottini writes on "The Methods of Communication Employed by the Various Armies in the Present Conflict," dealing with everything from the aeroplane to the automobile. An important article on "The Problem of Meat During the War" is presented by Massimo Torelli. At the beginning of the war, he

tells us, only two nations were using preserved meats—Germany and England. After the battle of the Marne, when the French found that they would not immediately need the immense herds of cattle that had been collected in case of a possible siege of Paris, cold storage was first cautiously introduced and has been gradually developed. This is most curious, as it was a Frenchman who invented cold storage.

As to Italy, although it had been again and again affirmed that Italians did not use preserved meats, either of the chilled or the frozen variety, yet when the war came it was found that the Government had built no fewer than 1,400 cold-storage warehouses, principally in the north of Italy, and that great orders for preserved meats had been placed in Argentina, Australia, and the United States. For the first time in its history the Italian Army is now being fed on preserved meat.

ITALY "REDEEMED."

The popular magazines continue to keep their readers informed of what their army is doing. Taking the most recent War Office reports as a theme, but never anticipating them, they present well-illustrated articles on the Italy that has already been "redeemed," with historical articles giving narratives of former attempts for redemption. For example, we have in *Il Secolo XX.* "Views from the Front," by Vittorio Podrecca, and "Grado Redeemed," by Giovanni Franceschini, to contrast with "A Century of Conspiracy at Trieste," by Angelo Scocchi, and "Garibaldi in the Trentino," by Isa Pini. The pictures which accompany the articles on current subjects give a splendid idea of the beauties of the territory invaded by the Italians, its natural as well as its historic elements, and also of the gigantic obstructions to the advance.

THE ALPINE SOLDIERS.

La Lettura opens with an article on "Our Alpine Soldiers," by G. Perucchetti, describing in pictures and text the history of the remarkable corps and its achievements in the wars against

Austria of 1859 and 1866. There is also an article, of historical as well as current interest, on the "Gulf of Trieste," by Paolo Revelli. The Foreign Minister, Baron Sidney Sonnino, who conducted the protracted negotiations with Austria-Hungary before Italy entered the war, forms the subject of a picturesque and informing paper by Guido Biagi. While not dealing with the Baron's most famous exploit in diplomacy, the author

presents a careful survey of those political influences and that natural ability which caused Sonnino first to rival Giolitti and then to defy him with a new and regenerated Italy eager for war at his back. What the Banca Roma scandal could not achieve in regard to the man who for thirteen years had held Italian internal politics in the hollow of his hand was performed over night by Sonnino with a popular foreign program.

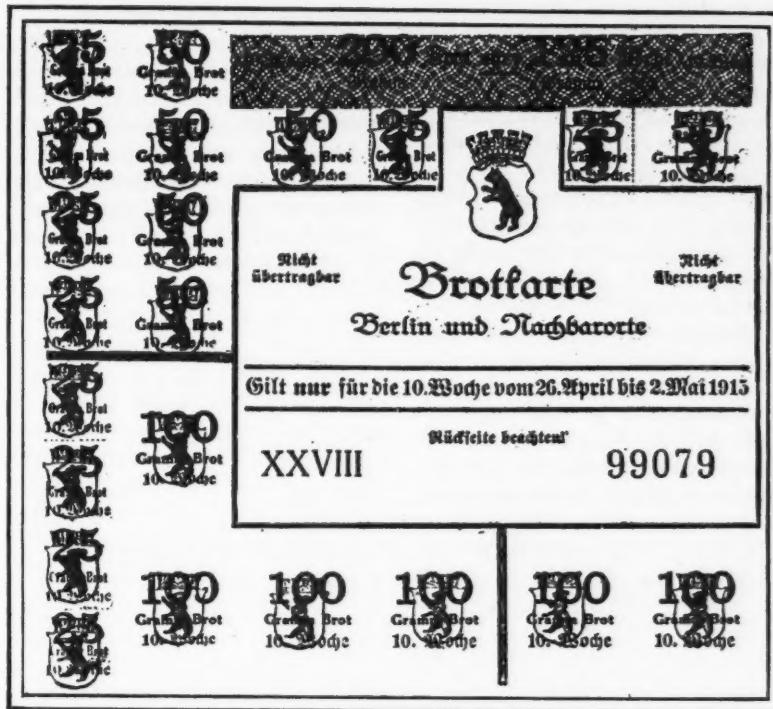
Robin Williams, K. O. Y. L. I.

(Eton, King's College, Cambridge, and the Roll of Honor, April 18, 1915.)

[From The Westminster Gazette.]

"Who dies if England lives?" O England's son,
 Not thou, who thus too punctually hast paid
 Thy double debt to Henry's Holy Shade
 With precious blood and duty nobly done;
 And, equaling England's gift to thee, has won
 The death of the undying, and the grade
 Of thine illustrious hero-peers who made
 Our England's freedom safe upon its throne.
 With a great sum, God knows, did She obtain
 This freedom, and with greater yet must hold;
 Coin'd is the cost from ore of English vein—
 Metal of Martyrs—the celestial gold
 Of hearts like thine, that must light up
 a fane
 For Reverence, howsoe'er the Earth grow cold.
 G. C. C.

A German War Bread Card



The authentic bread card, partly used, of which an illustration is here reproduced, was inclosed in a letter from a young business man of Berlin not yet drafted for the front, but at the disposal of the military authorities for service in the Landwehr Artillery. The letter is dated May 23, 1915, and reads, in part, as follows:

WHAT remains of my bread card of a few weeks ago will show you how liberal an allowance of bread the Government grants to each individual. These cards, issued every Monday morning, have small coupons calling for 25, 50, and 100 grams of bread, making a total of 1,950 grams, or nearly two kilos—about 4½ pounds of English weight—per week per individual.

Now, I have the normal appetite of a full-grown man, and, as you will see from the inclosed card, I used only 550 grams of my allowance without stinting myself in the least. Even the most hard-working laborer could not consume more bread than the Government permits him to obtain.

At first, when the new regulation for the distribution of bread and flour came into effect, on Feb. 15, there was a general grumbling of dissatisfaction in Berlin. The war has not quelled in us Berliners the atavistic inclination to kick about anything at any time. It is a condition of our mental and physical comfort. But the kicking did not last long. We soon realized the superior wisdom of the Government in regulating Germany's bread supply and preventing a number of scare-headed women from hoarding up enormous stores, to the detriment of the rest of the community. We also found that the new system runs smoothly and is not at all vexatious to the individual.

If you keep house, each member of the

household has his or her bread card, and upon supplying bread, rolls, and flour the baker clips corresponding coupons from these cards.

If you are a bachelor, like myself, and take your meals at restaurants, you tell the waiter what sort and how much bread you wish, and he does the clipping. The cards are not transferable. Thus, when you are a guest at the table of some friend, either you bring your bread with you, or, if you arrive early enough, you deliver your card into the hands of your friend's servant, who takes it to the baker and returns with the bread. It is all very simple, and no one thinks any more about it, now that thirteen weeks of quiet working have accustomed us to the little formality.

When you call for your new card, the old one has to be returned, with the unused coupons, to the authorities. I am really risking six months' imprisonment, or 1,500 marks' fine, by sending you this

one, for all infringements of the regulations of Jan. 25, 1915, are punishable to that extent, as the letterpress on the back of the card will tell you.

What would you pay in New York at a decent restaurant for a meal consisting of soup, fish, or entrée, roast with vegetables and potatoes, and dessert? Now, as before the war, I pay 80 pfennigs (or 20 cents) for such a meal at my usual restaurant! Nor have the portions been reduced in size. With 10 pfennigs' worth of beer in addition, and a 10-pfennig tip for my old waiter, I consider myself most comfortably cared for.

England may try her best to starve us out; she is failing completely. In fact, it will soon become known officially that the Government's husbanding of foodstuffs has been so efficient that Germany has now a surplus of supplies and will not need to begin using the new harvest until the end of September.

Peace Rumors

By HENRY ALTIMUS.

Hark! I hear the beat of a wing,
The caged bird is free.
The sun goes up in a wreath of hope
In waking Germany.

Now all the world lays by its work
And listens breathlessly
For the word that will make men kin
again
With the men of Germany.

The ear made blunt by cannon-roar
Vibrates with prophecy,
For rebel tongues have raised a cry
That rings through Germany.

A voice is raised; it will not still;
It thunders o'er the sea,
And men are calling loud to men
From distant Germany.

For they are wakened now and miss
The broad fraternity
Of borderless, hand-clasping men
That call to Germany.

Their sword will soon be scabbarded
And love will set them free.
Beware, Red Kaiser and your band,
The wrath of Germany!

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India's Loyalty

By Rabindranath Tagore

Translated from the Original Bengali by Basanta Koomar Roy

The following article, as translated, appeared originally in The International for August, 1915.

LOYALTY is one of our inherent characteristics. There is something special in the loyalty of India. To the Hindu the King is divine, and loyalty is a religious cult. The people of the West cannot understand the true significance of this. They think that this bowing down before power is a sign of our national weakness.

The Hindu cannot but take almost all the relations of life as ordained. To him there is almost no chance relation. For he knows that however wonderful and varied the revelation may be, the original source is one. In India this it not only a philosophy, but it is the religion of the people as well. It is not only written in books or taught in academies, but it is also realized in the heart, and reflected upon every-day duties of life. We look upon our parents as gods, our husbands as gods, and chaste women as goddesses. By showing respect to our superiors we satisfy our religious sense. The reason is not far to seek. From whatever source we derive benefit we see this primal source of all beneficence. To be separated from all the varied expressions of divinity around us, and then to pray to a benevolent Father in a distant heaven is not the religion of India. When we call our parents gods we never think of such an absurdity as that they are omnipotent. We fully know their weaknesses and their good qualities. We are also certain that the benefits they are showering upon us as father and mother are an expression of the fatherhood and the motherhood of the Universal One. That is why Indra, (the god of the clouds,) moon, fire, and wind have been spoken of as gods in the Vedas. India was never satisfied until she could feel the presence of the all-powerful One in the varied expressions

of nature. To us the universe is alive with a divine life.

It is not true to say that we worship power owing to our weakness. Every one knows that India worships even the cow. She knows that it is an animal. Man is powerful and the cow is weak. But the Indian society derives various benefits from the cow. Similarly the workman bows in reverence to his tools, the warrior to his sword, and the minstrel to his harp. It is not that they do not know that tools are mere tools, but that they know as well that a tool is only a symbol. The joy and benefit derived from it is not the gift of the wood or the iron, for nothing which is not kindred can touch the soul. It is for this that his gratitude and worship is offered through the tools to Him who is instrumental to all expressions.

Nothing can pain India more than to feel that this governmental affair is only a machine. She, who is satisfied by feeling a kinship of the soul even with the inanimate, how can she live unless she can find a real personification of the heart in such a vast human institution as the State? One can bend wherever there is a relationship of the soul with its kindred. Where there is no such relationship, and if one is constantly forced to bend low, there he feels insulted and grieved. Therefore, if we can realize the life of the supreme power and beneficence as the ruler, we can bear the heavy yoke of government. Otherwise the heart breaks down at every step. We want to worship the State after infusing it with life; we wish to feel the kinship of our hearts with it. We cannot bear force as mere force.

It is true that loyalty is the very heart of India. In her the King is not merely to please her whims. She does not like to see the King as an unnecessary ap-

pendage. She wants to feel the King as a reality. For a long time past she has not yet found her King, and she is becoming more and more grieved. How this vast country is being afflicted in her heart of hearts by the burdensome yoke of her many Kings from beyond the seas, and how she is sighing helplessly all the time is known only to the omniscient. India only knows how painful it is to bear with the heartlessness of those who are merely sojourners, who are always longing for the holiday, who live a life of exile in this "land of regrets," as they call it, only for their livelihood; and with those who are working the administrative machinery by being paid for it, and with whom we have no connection whatever, India, with her innate feeling of loyalty, is thus humbly praying: "O Lord, no more can I bear with these little Kings, temporary Kings, and many Kings. Give me the one King who will be able to proclaim that India is his kingdom—a kingdom, not of the merchant, not of the sojourner, not of the paid servant, not of Lancashire. O Lord of the universe, give us one whom we can accept as our King whole-heartedly."

To rule man with a machine and ignore the connections of the heart or of society is not possible. Justice cannot bear the arrogance for any length of time. It is not natural. It hurts the universal law. No talk of "good government" or "peace" can satisfy this intense heart famine. The British officials may get angry and the police serpents may raise their heads at such statement, but the famished truth that is wailing within the hearts of 300,000,000 of the people of India cannot be rooted out by any man or superman.

We cry for bread but we are given only stones. No wonder that our hearts regret and refuse everything. It is then that in our heart of hearts the spiritual India is awakened: "Be not deceived by outward appearances—all this is mere play." In this play, even he who is dancing does not know that he is merely an actor in disguise. He thinks he is a King, he is a magistrate, he is a Viceroy. The more he is being enveloped

with this veil of falsehood the more he is forgetting the real truth. If you remove his actor's dresses today, then in the eternal truth what is left? There is no difference between him and me. In this universe I am as big a King as any King on earth. * * *

Where there is only show of authority, excess of force, and where there is only whip and cane, prison and fine, punitive police and armed soldiers, there can be no greater insult of self, no greater insult to the all-knowing God within us, than to be afraid and bend. O motherland, with the help of your eternal, noble, and inspiring knowledge of Godhood, keep the head unmoved and untainted high above those insults; refuse with all thy heart these high-sounding falsehoods, see that wearing an awe-inspiring mask they may not influence thy inner soul in any way. Before the purity, the sacredness and the all-powerfulness of the soul these loud declamations and punishments, this pride of position, these huge preparations for the economic drain are merely child's play. If they pain you, see that they do not make you mean. Where there is a bond of love, to bend there is glorious; but where there is no such bond, one should keep his heart free and head erect. Never bend. Give up mendicancy. Do organize yourself in silence and in secret. Do not slight small beginnings. Keep an invincible faith in yourself. For, surely, you have a mission in this world. That is why with all your sufferings and tribulations you were not destroyed. Mother India, your throne lies stretched at the feet of the sacred Himalayas, and it is being washed on three sides by the great oceans. Before your throne the Hindus and the Mohammedans, the Christians, Buddhists and the Parsees have been attracted at the call of the Father. When you will again occupy your own seat, then, I am sure, the differences of knowledge, work, and religion will be solved, and the all-envious, poisonous pride of the modern, cruel, political system will be softened at thy feet. Do not be hasty, do not be deceived, do not be afraid. Know thyself and awake, arise and stop not till the goal is reached.

American Opinion of Germany

By Herman Oncken

Dr. Oncken, one of the foremost German historians, and Professor of Modern History in the University of Heidelberg, is well known as the author of "America and the Great Powers." This article is taken from a long discussion of Germany's struggle with public opinion in this country.

THE difficulties are greater than we thought, and the entrance to the portals of the mentality of another nation, which we sought to attain, can hardly be essayed in view of the broad stream in which conceptions coined in England swamp public opinion in America. For here it is not the question of an influence, the exertion of which is only beginning now, but the food which emerges from the kitchen of the organization for the manufacture of British public opinion has been served Americans regularly for decades past, seasoned and prepared in such a way that the American stomach has become unreceptive for anything else. The war, however, has given the English the possibility to bring their system to a height never before attained. They have worked in two directions in order to secure the monopoly of the market; on the one hand through a cutting off of German information, so long as it could be done, and on the other through a systematic and clever furnishing of its own product.

Even those who reckoned with the inner relationship between English and American thinkers as an indestructible fact, this time were surprised by the unusual exhibition of inward dependence which over there became manifest almost everywhere in treating of the immediate reasons of the war, and fully whenever the deeper underlying causes were to be considered. Almost everywhere one met the same chains of thought, the same prejudices, the same sources of errors and the same conjuror as in the public opinion of England. The conception of German "militarism" at present held by the masses in America in its most minute details, even in its very mental composition, is "made in England." And the most surprising thing is how this Eng-

lish argument, known to be framed for the war, a weapon more diabolical in calculation than the weapons of the battlefield, is now being accepted in America, without condition, as if it contained unbiased truth. It thus becomes the mental property of a nation that does not want to be a partisan, but instead wants to be neutral.

With complete disregard of their mental rooting, the phrases coined in England have been greedily grasped, and not only in the spheres where the comfort of not thinking is pairing with sanctimonious pathos, but even in the leading upper strata the accusation resounds, that the German spirit in its depths carries the responsibility for the world war; that Nietzsche and Treitschke, the pan-Germans, and General von Bernhardi, are its exponents.

The irony of world history has burdened the much-tried Nietzsche with the fate of being proclaimed as the mental originator of the modern Germany which he detested so deeply. All his dazzling brilliancy has not spared him, the aristocrat, from being recoined by pure ignorance of the masses like the shallowest of every-day talk. There was nothing he was so proud of as his Slavic blood, and nothing at which he cast such amorous glances as his Romanic mentality. No other German of later days had announced his sympathy with French education, his hatred of the part of German culture in the world and of the German Empire, in the past as well as in the present, to the extent this unhappy human, who did not want to be a German but a European, did these things.

With the name of Treitschke it is another matter. He belongs to the new Germany in the making, for which he

struggled, and to the completed Germany, whose face he helped to mold: a glowing and powerful expression of the spirit that has created our State. Englishmen and Americans should be the first to understand him, for if anything distinguished him, it was this—that he, stepping forth from the political champions of the new empire, imbued historical writing with a fiery national pride and a conscious political determination, such as it is a matter of course for the Englishman, as is manifested by Macaulay or, perhaps, by George Bancroft in his naïve self-confidence in his great and glorious American fatherland. Every thorough student knows that Treitschke formed the climax and also the finishing point of a period in German history writing, and I need not discuss why Ranke was bound to be to the present generation of historians something higher than that. G. P. Gooch, one of the few Englishmen who even felt a breath of the wealth of this mind, recently very correctly wrote, in a characterization teeming with vigor: "It had grown out of a national need and its *raison d'être* ceased when the need was satisfied." In that mental isolation of England, of which the finer minds of the island again and again complained sorrowfully, for a long time no attention whatever was paid to Treitschke, and even in the lectures by Professor J. A. Cramb on "Germany and England," which have recently appeared in print, the late new historian of Queens College in London, in shame addresses to his countrymen the reproach: "Not a page of Treitschke's greatest work has been translated."

Certainly Treitschke has never been a friend of England, (just as little as Macaulay was a friend of the Germans,) for in his knightly soul he felt no relationship with the insular methods of politics; but it is absolutely inhistorical to seek the sowing of an alleged hatred against England, as the root of all evil, in a man who died almost twenty years ago and never lived to experience that rising wave of envy and malice that since was to come over here. Just a single example to show how precipitately the

effort is now suddenly being made to burden the memory of Treitschke. Even a man of the education of Cramb adds to the characterization of the English as "a nation of shopkeepers" the quotation "Treitschke. *Politics* 2, 358"—although every German student of national economics could have taught him that the designation in question was originally coined by an English classic, by none other than Adam Smith ("Wealth of Nations," 114, Chapter 7, Part 3). They have forgotten their own people!

The book on "Pan-Germanism" published by the American Roland G. Usher, Associate Professor of History, Washington University, St. Louis, emerges from these depths of English journalism. But, then, I am very well aware of the fact that the academic titles of Mr. Usher form only a modest step in the unwritten but recognized order of rank of the learned life of America, and I would not mention his poor piece of work here if it were not being sold over there in many thousands of copies, and if it were not a significant expression of that mental dependence of subordinate circles. The elevation of this book may be gathered from the following sentences taken from it at random in which this historic thinker seeks to inform his countrymen concerning the political situation in Southern Germany. (Page 258):

Moreover, Prussia and Austria are thoroughly well hated in Southern Germany. The comic papers of Munich are fond of printing scandalous cartoons and squibs about the Emperors; it is popularly supposed that neither Emperor would dare venture into Southern Germany without a large bodyguard. It must not be forgotten that the German Constitution gives the Southern States important military privileges, which could not fail to be of consequence in time of war. Furthermore, Southern Germany controls important approaches to Alsace, the passes through Switzerland, and the whole upper half of the Rhine and Danube Valleys.

The entire mental equipment of the book is upon the level of this strategy. Every page discloses abysses of lack of general education. Evidently the much-read book owes its origin to the utilization of journalistic "chance," but not to an interest even half-way scientific. Its familiarity with the funda-

mental principles is of a sort that a historic political discussion of it is not at all worth while. Therefore, let us leave the phantom of this Pan-Germanism, against which Mr. Usher, in the name of the culture of the world, calls all nations to assistance, to all those who have learned nothing from history. One is only obliged to think the one thing: It is conceivable if something of this sort is being produced by our enemies as a means to antagonize, but it is more difficult to understand it when public opinion assumes ownership on these second-hand arguments without suspecting the "Made in England."

But, then, England and America are able to serve up an additional crown witness, who is alleged to combine in the strongest warlike formula our true political desire, and therewith to expose it involuntarily to the world: This is General von Bernhardi and the book he wrote a few years ago on "Germany and the Next War." This book of a cavalry General, retired five years ago, in Germany has attracted attention only in small circles. It soon was played against us in England so much the more actively in that its author was an official personality of political influence; and after the outbreak of the war the English factory of public opinion has not taken hold of any export article in a more loving manner. In America the book in the English translation has reached a circulation of a million copies, more than a hundred times the number of its circle of German readers. And if, of late, the book can be sold for the cheap price of twenty-five cents, this fact proves that those who are behind this distribution are promising much to themselves of this effective number for a circle of readers without judgment. Why, even a man like Roosevelt, who, taken altogether, might well be called an American mental congener of Bernhardi, thought to attack the German original sin itself with a phrase of Bernhardism, coined by himself.

Therefore this book has undoubtedly exercised an influence very unfavorable to us. It is being swallowed over there

like an unintentional self-criticism of German militarism. I do not wish to enter here into a discussion with its author, who, like almost all former officers, has re-entered the service before the enemy, but one may be permitted here to state that the son of intelligent Theodor von Bernhardi has not inherited much of the latter's diplomatic prudence. Of course, cavalry Generals hardly ever are to be found among the most astute politicians, and Americans will remember that we are even able to show the type of sabre-rattling Admirals with strong words. But, then, Bernhardi is not a Clausewitz, and his book never leads us to the high elevations of the other's discourse "About War." It rather belongs to a class of literature which is not strange to any of the great nations—one could place the writings of Lord Roberts as a parallel alongside of it—which, whether in the form of a novel or in the presentation of political military argument, seeks to educate up to a warlike feeling and a forceful foreign policy.

I also admit that in this book sentences are found which very few people among us would sign, considering them as impolitic and indiscreet, but I do not admit the correctness of the final deduction which is being drawn from this book. For one thing, Americans overlook that Bernhardi is so little in accord with the responsible authorities of the Imperial Government that he openly affirms that they have lost public confidence in consequence of the peaceful solution of the Moroccan question, and if a dissatisfied General out of service desires to have German policy of the last years replaced by another, then one can hold the ruling German spirit of the German State just as little responsible for his opinion as the Administration of President Wilson can be held responsible for all declarations of Theodore Roosevelt. But to attempt to contradict the peace policy of our empire for forty-four years past with a book of a private individual without influence—the peace policy in particular which according to admission of the entire world has been maintained by our Emperor for a quarter of a century—that is no longer honest fair play. And

if the point is raised that Bernhardi is a characteristic exponent of our public opinion—as indicated before, he is no such thing—then one should pay a little closer attention to the part that has been played by the *Matin* in France and the newspaper concern of Lord Northcliffe in England. This is disturbing peace and poisoning the wells in a circle of millions of readers.

Is the cause of the slogan “German militarism” to be found in the inborn insular aversion to general obligatory military service, which is in vogue in France and Russia just as it is in Germany?

A nation having obligatory military service takes an absolutely reversed view of things. It looks at war as something tragic for the reason that it concerns all without exception, the Prince and the laborer, the academician and the peasant, in the same manner and carries the same worries into castle and hut. General Hamilton may say with a vanity of the aristocratic professional soldier: “Yes, conscription is a tremendous leveler. The proud are humbled; the poor-spirited are strengthened; the national idea is fostered; the interplay of varying ideals is sacrificed.” We Germans know that this dreadful equalizer produces the true democracy of duties, which is not based

upon the supermankind of Nietzsche, but upon the categorical imperative of Kant. But, above all, such a democratic army of general obligatory service is not an instrument to be used according to whim for the conquest of the world, but a means of defense of the home country, of the defense of all by all, only to be employed in case of need. In the English army of professionals the world-conquering poor devils may sing in the verses of Rudyard Kipling:

“Walk wide o’ the Widow at Windsor,
For ’alf o’ Creation she owns:
We ’ave bought ’er the same with the
sword an’ the flame,
An’ we’ve salted it down with our
bones.”

In the German peoples’ army, however, there resounds the old song of the comrade with the refrain composed and added to it by the people themselves: “In der Heimat, in der Heimat, da gibt’s ein Wiedersehen” (“At home, at home, a reunion there will be”)—for they are standing in the field to protect their home and all it stands for.

The German peoples’ army therefore is peaceful by nature—and so has been our policy since 1871. The English professional army is by nature on conquest bent—and so has England’s policy been from time immemorial.

A Legend of the Rhine

[From *Punch*.]

(*German bakers are now producing cakes with “Gott strafe England” on them.*)

Young Heinrich at the age of ten,
An offspring of the Huns,
Joined manly hate of Englishmen
With childish love of buns;
And so it filled him with delight
When bakeries divulged
A plan whereby these passions might
Be both at once indulged.

Alack! his well-intentioned cram
Cost little Heinrich dear;
Disorder in the diaphragm
Concluded his career;
To find out why he passed away
They bade the doctor come,
And “strafe England,” so they say,
Was printed on his tum.

In fervent love of fatherland
Young Heinrich swiftly brake
The patriotic doughnut and
The loyal currant cake;
To guard his hate from growing less
Through joy at this repast
He saved—precocious thoroughness!—
The “strafe” bits till last.

The Moral Right to Thrive on War

By Dr. Kuno Francke

Dr. Francke Is Professor of the History of German Culture and Curator of the Germanic Museum in Harvard University.

Cambridge, Aug. 9, 1915.

To the Editor of the New York Times:

IHAVE worked, during the last months, on the side of those who seek to avert the danger of this country being involved in civil dissensions arising from racial sympathies or antipathies concerning the European conflict. In particular, I have repeatedly expressed my conviction that sympathy with one or the other of the warring nations should not induce American citizens to attempt to coerce our Government into deviating from the strict observance of the accepted rules of neutrality.

I have therefore advocated non-interference on the part of our Government with the internationally legalized traffic in arms and munitions of war, even though, through circumstances over which the United States has no control, this traffic turns out to be of decided advantage to one of the belligerents and of very serious disadvantage to the other. For the inhibition of this traffic would be equally to the advantage of one of the belligerents and to the disadvantage of the other, and as a positive Governmental measure it would make the United States in a much stricter sense legally a partisan of one of the warring powers than mere non-interference with this traffic does.

But the time has come, I believe, when this question should also be looked at from another point of view. Through the course of events it has ceased to be a question of international legality only, and has come to be a vital question of national and international morality.

Is it moral, from the national point of view, that the United States, a nation which officially stands for the policy of peace and against excessive

armament, should now permit within its own borders the manufacture of arms on so large a scale that this industry bids fair to become one of the leading industries of the country?

Is it moral, from the national point of view, that our Government should permit the rise in this country of a set of capitalists whose interests are exclusively or predominantly identified with war, and which, therefore, by its own self-interest, is bound to abet and to foster the war spirit among masses of people?

Is it moral, from the international point of view, that this country, while officially holding aloof from the gigantic carnage which is now devastating Europe, should, as a matter of fact, through its continued shipment of arms make itself a participant in this destruction, and indeed thrive upon it?

And if—as is by no means impossible—the continued sale of arms to one of the belligerents from an officially neutral country should finally come to be one of the decisive factors in the issue of this war, would that be an issue to which the United States would have reason to point with pride as a victory of international morality? Would not that be the result of a positive assistance from this country to one of the warring groups which could not any longer be reconciled with moral neutrality?

These are questions so momentous, so far-reaching, and so pressing that Congress should, the sooner the better, have an opportunity to discuss them. They are questions which should be decided without the bias of racial sympathies or antipathies, solely upon the ground of American national welfare.

Italy in War Time

By G. M. Trevelyan

This article, by the author of "Garibaldi and the Making of Italy," appeared originally in The London Daily News. Written while the Germans were making their victorious thrust at Warsaw, it constitutes an appeal to Italy's and Europe's historic past.

ITALIAN fortitude has been quite undisturbed by the fall of Lemberg. The Italians of their own choice entered the war at the time when the Russian retreat had begun and they were prepared for the events that have since occurred. If the Italians had failed to take the Alpine passes of Trentino and Carnia, and to establish themselves on the line of the Isonzo, they would no doubt be more alarmed about the possibility of the Germans coming down in force upon the Lombard plain. But that is felt to be an impossibility since the passes have been seized, and the fact that Germany, though it sends volunteers to the Trentino, will not actually declare war against Italy, is held to indicate that Germany seeks to minimize the Italian war and its effects, rather than to attempt any big coup on this side of the Alps. I do not think it will be possible to minimize the effects of the Italian war in the long run. The spirit of the people and of the army is so strong, so quiet, so patient, so determined. There has been no grumbling at the comparative want of progress of the last fortnight; for people here have watched the great war long enough before they entered it to understand that quick results on a big scale are not to be looked for till the Allies as a whole are on the advance again. The Italians are doing their duty of the hour in drawing off more and more Austrians from Galicia. They are acting as a much-needed "magnet" to the forces of the common enemy. And meanwhile they are making real progress on the Carso, the bare plateau of limestone uplands above Monfalcone, Gorizia, and Trieste.

Two things have tended to maintain public confidence here in the last few days. The news from England and the news from Russia. The Lloyd George

munitions campaign and the rising up of the English people to face the adverse hour is as much commented on as the Czar's spirited manifesto and the similar uprising of the Russian people of all classes and parties to continue the war till final victory. It is believed here that something of the spirit of 1812 has been aroused in Russia by the recent defeats. The spirit of England and of Russia respectively has been watched, and is at this moment approved. The spirit of France is not even watched, for the Italians know that the tragic determination of every Frenchman is to die rather than to fail of victory. England is well beloved here, but she is distant and relatively a stranger. With France there have been more quarrels in the past, but she is more kith and kin to Italy. Her ways, whether in war or peace, are simpler and more understandable to the Italian. There is also a deep feeling for the enormous sacrifices of men that France is making. The wrongs of Belgium are also very deeply felt by the people of Italy. That feeling meets one here at every turn.

I was present at a pro-English demonstration last night at one of the theatres. It was a patriotic revue of the war and the Italian politics that led up to it. There was Aristophanic political license, Giolitti and Bülow being as important *dramatis personae* as Cleon before them. Such uncensored freedom would, one fears, have been sadly abused and vulgarized on the English stage, but here it was used most delightfully. The civilization "of twenty-five centuries" knows how to do these things. There was a true delicacy of wit in the scene where Bülow, who looked his very self without any caricaturing of his Ambassadorial dignity, unrolls to Giolitti and his "Parliamentary Majority" an

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enormous scroll, containing in one corner of it a list of the infinitesimal "concessions" that he will make on Austria's behalf. Some one suggests they might ask the Italian Government about it. "There is no Government," says Giolitti. Then the mob breaks in on the conspirators, and the "Parliamentary Majority" vanishes. The scene ends with Giolitti looking around the room behind all the chairs with a match, to find his "Majority"; but it has disappeared.

As the British Ambassador was known to be present—it was a benefit night for the Blue Cross—a tableau had been specially put in about the British Navy. A British naval officer, looking, I fear, more like a representative, say, of the Chilian Navy, read a spirited speech about how England had drawn sword for honor and Belgium; and then we all got up and clapped for the British Ambassador to the strains of "God Save the King." A little later, when an "old Garibaldino" was singing his song, the presence of Ricciotti Garibaldi was detected in one of the boxes, and we all got up and clapped for him to the strains of Garibaldi's hymn; thereupon Ricciotti Garibaldi made us a speech about how his horse was wounded in the 1866 campaign, and gave a shriek of pain that he has never forgotten, and how we should all subscribe to the Blue Cross in aid of the wounded horses. Outside these demonstrations in the theatres no one now demonstrates or shouts in the streets, as they were constantly doing during the ten months of Italy's "neutrality." This is quite as it should be. The municipality has just put up a notice to tell us what we are to do if an air raid is made upon Rome. We are already very considerably darkened at night.

To return to the patriotic "revue." The song that was most often encored was a trio by a Socialist and anarchist and a priest, all united to go to the front. The song was witty and at the same time stirring, and when the actor representing the priest waved a tricolor handkerchief and cried "Avanti Savoia" he brought down the house. There was certainly no contempt or malice implied against the priest, quite the opposite. That reminds

me that this Sunday there were again held patriotic services in several of the principal churches of Rome and in the Cathedral of Milan, with a war sermon there by Cardinal Ferrari on patriotism. It is not merely on the stage that priests are patriotic today.

Another of these patriotic revues was about the old dying wolf, Austria, and the bellicose mastiff, Germany. It reproduced in the most forcible manner both the character of modern Germany and the hatred of Italians for the historic idea of Austria. The black and yellow wolf, hobbling on a crutch shaped like a gallows, was in himself an artistic creation. We had Cavour, Rossini, and I know not whom beside. The appeal was to historic memories—what "our fathers have told us"—and it moved a vast audience far more than anything that happened fifty years ago could touch a corresponding English audience. Me it moved, because it is part of my profession to understand the multitude and delicacy of the historical allusions. Certainly Austria is paying now for what she did in Italy between 1815 and 1866. And her retention of Trento and Trieste have kept the memory of the old yellow and black hangman alive in Italian hearts, in spite of all the delusive appearance of the Triple Alliance. Trentino and Trieste are everywhere the magic words. To the Italian populace those are the two objectives of the war.

But Germany had her due share in the piece. One of the best songs was a trio by a German commercial traveler, a spy, and a professor. The part of the German professor in the present European tragedy is as well appreciated here as with us. These revues no doubt are trifles, but they serve to illustrate the various phases of public opinion at the moment.

It is with very different feelings from those of the detached and light-hearted tourist that one walks the streets of Rome today. Formerly an Englishman in Rome has felt as though this wonderful *mise en scène* of the agonies and tragedies and achievements of three thousand years of Italian history, which are bounded in the little circle of this

city, were a glorified and joyous play-thing for the visiting scholar or poet from the isle of safety. "Dulce mari magno." Ever since, in the Winter that followed Waterloo, the flocks of "Mildrons Inglesi" came in their private chariots to possess the Piazzai di Spagna, after their twenty years of war-exile from Italian joys—ever since that date, now a century old, we English have moved about in Italy and Rome in a privileged position. For we alone have been citizens of a State in no fear of being conquered by an insolent foe, persons free from the heavy burden of the race-feuds and military despotisms of the Continent, safe in our inviolate isle. We watched with too little understanding the convulsions of all Europe in 1848; we pitied the agony of France in 1870, but never feared her fate for ourselves; even the long struggle for Italian freedom with all its sufferings and postponements, though it moved our sympathy, was a thing remote from our own experience. And so we have always trodden the historic streets of Rome, where liberties and empires so often rose and fell, as persons detached from the cruelties, sacrifices, and catastrophes of its history ancient and modern, observing all with the snug pleasure of an art-critic before a masterpiece.

And now, behold, these ancient tragedies and agonies are become flesh and blood to us. We, too, strive for our lives

and our liberty against the Tedeschi, sworn to enslave us. Our far-flung empire is in danger as was once that of Rome. Divisions or want of forethought now would ruin us, as Italy was ruined when Landsknecht and Spaniard sacked this city near 400 years ago. And so, as we move about among the present inhabitants of Rome, amid a people that has risen to its dangerous duty at this crisis of European freedom in a mood so sober and with preparations so well made, we English feel heart-brothers with them, sharers at last in the agonies and sacrifices and dangers which their fathers knew so well as their daily portion. We are blood-brothers with Europe now. "Sink or swim, survive or perish," we are in for it together now. That this change will profoundly alter our character I cannot doubt. Whether mostly for good or mostly for bad, it is far too early even to guess.

Meanwhile the Italians are watching, with friendly but penetrating eyes, to see how we drag ourselves out of the dangers among which we have fallen. They have heard that the Englishman is best when he has his back to the wall. They are watching, and they think the munitions campaign and the loan a good beginning. They are waiting to see if England also is capable of a Risorgimento on a mightier scale of organized effort than that which sufficed to free Italy two generations ago.

The Land of the Brave and the Free

By ONE OF THE LATTER.

[From The Spectator.]

Old England glories in her Volunteers;
 'Tis splendid! Let the other fellow go,
 While *I* remain—a prey to poignant
 fears
 Lest he should suffer harm. He's
 dead? Ah, woe!
 Resignedly I check the rising sob,
 Then hurry out to try and get his job.

"National Service?" Would you have
 us slaves?
 Free I was born and free my friend
 shall die.
 It is because he likes it that he braves
 Thirst, hunger, cold, fatigue, and
 agony.
 And if he die, what matter? I foresee
 Another England bred from men like
 ME.
 H. W. B.



VICE ADMIRAL GRIGOROVICH
Russian Minister of the Navy
(Photo from Paul Thompson)



M. THÉOPHILE DELCASSE
Minister of Foreign Affairs of France. He Resigned This Place in 1905
at Germany's Behest
(Photo from Bain News Service)

Britain's New African Colony

By Charles Friedlander, F. R. G. S.

Mr. Friedlander, whose article appeared in *The London Daily Chronicle* of July 15, was for eight years legal adviser to the German Government in West Africa.

THE great news of General Botha's superbly successful and glorious campaign has been in all men's mouths this week. The King, the Commons, and the War Office, and the self-governing dominions have expressed to him the congratulations of the empire, to which he has added a large and valuable colony. The writer has had several opportunities of visiting what was then German Southwest Africa, and a few details as to its past, present, and future will suffice to show the extreme importance of the conquest effected.

The history of the territory in question, which extends roughly from the Orange River mouth to Portuguese West Africa, along the west coast of the African Continent, and about 250 miles inland, dates further back than that of most Southern African territories.

To this day, on the hill southwest of Luederitzbucht, there is uplifted a cross, presently composed of steel, and a replica of the cross erected by Bartholomew Diaz in 1486, when he first circumnavigated the Cape of Storms.

The original was removed by the order of the German Emperor, and is now believed to be in the Museum of Historical Research in Berlin. The hill in question was known until 1908 as Diaz Point, but since the discovery of diamonds in this part of the territory, the point and the hill behind it have been renamed Diamond Hill.

From the time of its first sighting by Diaz the bay behind the point, called until the time of the German occupation, Angra Pequena, (the Narrow Harbor,) remained a port of call for stray vessels traveling to and from the Dutch East Indies, and especially so after the settle-

ment of the Dutch East India Company had been established at the Cape of Good Hope.

From time to time, and more particularly during the early and middle nineteenth century, whalers also made use of this part of the coast, but the inhospitable nature of the country discouraged all and sundry from even attempting to penetrate into the interior, as well as from settling near the harbor itself. In order to complete the historical survey, it is only necessary to add that the country was taken possession of by the British Government, and the Government of the Cape Colony carried on the immediate administration. Toward the latter part of the nineteenth century, by agreement between the Imperial and Colonial Governments, the territory was abandoned, and it was immediately seized by Germany, which country had previously claimed it, as having been acquired for Germany by one Anton Luederitz, a German trader and hunter. From that date until its surrender to General Botha's victorious army it has been a German colony, and for the last few years the largest, most prosperous, and best administered, and the one with the greatest prospects of becoming not only a self-supporting, but a remunerative part of the German colonial empire.

The country was originally abandoned by the British chiefly by reason of the fact that it seemed wholly unproductive, utterly barren, and without any promise for the future. And, indeed, the aspect to the visitor from either East or West is appalling enough. Coming from the east, the only means of entry is across the Kalahari Desert, through trackless, waterless country, swept by sand storms, and repellent from every point of view. From the west the approach is by sea.

Coming from Cape Town, you find a belt of barren, shifting sand dunes stretching inland for miles and miles. There is not a sign of life, human, animal or vegetable. Dense fogs and storms abound, and the Benguela current increases the dangers of navigation. The only safe port in the middle of the nineteenth century was Walfish Bay, then, and since, a British possession, but now rapidly silting up. The port of Angra Pequena is a small, almost entirely land-locked harbor, into which ships of great draught cannot enter. For ships of a somewhat shallower draught it has been made available by the work done since the German occupation. The only other port is Swakopmund, immediately north of Walfish Bay, an open roadstead exposed to the full fury of the gales and seas coming across the Atlantic from South America. Since the abandonment of the territory and the German occupation it has, however, been found that, once the forbidding outer defences have been passed the country itself is found to be most suitable to many forms of activity, and is likely, owing to its magnificent climate, to be able to support a large white population.

In the south the revolution has come in the discovery of diamonds in 1908 in a form never known before in the history of the world's precious stones. Certain natives working on the railway line then being constructed from Luederitzbucht inland found among the gravel and sea-sand stones which they knew, from previous experience in the diamond mines of Kimberley, and in the river-diggings of the Western Orange River Colony, to be diamonds of an exceptionally fine quality.

In 1906, after the temporary prosperity due to the money expended by the German Government during the Herero campaigns in 1904, Luederitzbucht was bank-

rupt. In 1910 it was a large and flourishing town to which settlers had flocked from all parts of the earth, and north and south of which for scores of miles there extended an unbroken chain of diamond fields, practically from the Orange to Walfish Bay. The export from these fields, all alluvial sand, in 1913 exceeded the value of £1,250,000. From August, 1908, to about February, 1910, life in Luederitzbucht was almost a replica of the days of the American goldfields in the '40s, and many stirring and quaint stories can be related in connection therewith.

The first large company was formed in Cape Town and is a British company. It was this company which paid £100,000 for its claims, and put active work as well as capital into the mines that made the fields. When it was successful, the German Government immediately stepped in, and the German Emperor decreed that no further foreign company should be allowed to own diamond claims in German Southwest Africa. After the war, under British rule, there should be great opportunities for the development of this important industry, as a very large section of the ground has been worked by or for the German Government and another large section has been entirely closed to private enterprise.

In the north very valuable copper deposits have been found at Otavi, the terminus of one of the two branch arms of the railway running northeast from Swakopmund toward the Caprivi enclave. They are being worked under the auspices of a Johannesburg mining firm. Other valuable mineral deposits have been reported from time to time, and there seems to be no doubt that great mineral possibilities lie hidden in the interior, which is very largely, from the prospector's point of view, a terra incognita.



No Militarism in Germany

By Dr. Rudolf Leonhard

Professor of Law in the University of Breslau.

Breslau, Germany, July 11, 1915.

To the Editor of the New York Times:

AMONG many things read today with astonishment the most astonishing for the German public is the often declared purpose of our adversaries to continue the war until German militarism should be destroyed. The acquaintances of mine regard these utterances as a very riddle. They do not understand what such words mean, because we have no other militarism than the Continental States of Europe, which struggle against our country.

Such a weapon is absolutely unavoidable for every commonwealth, which must protect the people against the hostile desires of the neighbors. The care for such a weapon would naturally not be diminished, but increased in the case of a defeat. But there are also other opinions about the sense of the mysterious opposition against Germany's so-called militarism. Many foreign people believe that there exists a German military caste, to whom the Emperor himself belongs, having the tendency to begin as many wars as possible in order to enlarge the German territory and to bring other nations into a dependence upon Germany. But we know our Emperor's love for peace from daily experiences and cannot be mistaken about it.

However, it seems that the opposite feeling abroad is the result of a wrong interpretation concerning some former utterances of the Emperor made in order to deter those who would disturb the peace. The form of them seemed sometimes to be a little rough. But this was the natural consequence of the good conscience of the speaker and of his peace-loving heart. People who did not understand that were very bad psychologists.

Nowadays the "militarism" is more and more regarded as a dangerous quality of the whole German people, to begin bloody quarrels in order to conquer a

dominion over the world. We all know here that nothing is further from the German mind than such desires. Therefore, it is difficult to conceive how such a misrepresentation about our tendencies could arise.

Asking for the reasons, we must confess that, indeed, there have been among us some enthusiastic persons, the so-called Pan-Germanists, a little party without any influence, who uttered from time to time rather fantastic ideas about the splendid future of our country. Their opinions were usually not even mentioned in the most widely spread German newspapers. The less they were respected in Germany the more they have been quoted abroad by the political enemies of our country in order to spread the illusion that such incautious aspirations were the very expression of the German desires. If that be true, we would observe now after the victories a development of such tendencies in Germany. But they cannot be discovered here. I cannot deny that there are some patriots who dream of leading German thought toward the education of the world, but such hopes do no harm and have no political consequence.

If our foes really have made up their mind to destroy German desires of conquest under the name of militarism they cannot have any success. It is impossible to destroy a thing which does not exist. Therefore, if the war really will last until such a goal is reached, it will never end.

I do not say it in the interest of my people. I say it in the interest of the foreigners who are deceived by their rulers in order to sacrifice them for an impossible thing. Certainly the very goals of the deceivers are other ones, which they carefully hide, because their poor victims would not like to give their blood for the real wishes of their rulers. So I regret less my brethren than the

brave soldiers of our enemies, among whom I had many very good friends before the war. It is worth while to die for his people, but it is not worth while to die for the destruction of a phantom.

Although I do not overrate the influence of my words, I think it is my duty to say my opinion openly. I cannot help them who do not wish to learn the truth.

Night in the Trench

By H. VARLEY.

It eynt quite as 'omelike as old 'Ampstead 'Eath.
 To crawl on yer belly like worms,
 Wiv water an' mud arf-an-arf underneath,
 An' live things as bites till yer squirms.
 Yer down't care a 'ang fer the Germans
 as lives.
 In 'oles just a few yards aw'y,
 Fer alw'y yer gives 'em as good as they
 gives
 Wotever they do or they s'y.

Yer down't even mind w'en a blarsted
 shell drops
 So long as yer eynt 'it yersel';
 It's part o' the gyme—an' yer grin till
 yer flops
 An' dies wiv a smile where yer fell.
 If the 'Un fellers charge yer it eynt arf
 as bad—
 Yer gives 'em a 'ellstorm o' lead;
 They runs on yer baynit like men as is
 mad—
 An' yer twists it aht reekin' an' red.

Yer down't even care if the rations runs
 aht
 An' yer drink o' the filth as is near.
 It's "Are we down'earted?" yer yell an'
 yer shaht—
 But yer'd give up yer soul fer a beer.
 An' 'unger evnt notin' so long as it's d'y
 An' yer rifle is 'ot wiv the fight;
 But arfter the sunset, w'en black is the
 sky;
 O Gawd! That's what gets yer—the
 night.

No 'ell can be worse than to 'ear the
 wild screams
 Of soljers who fights in the'r sleep;
 An' dreadin' the orful things 'auntin' yer
 dreams;
 The red flood as drowns yer down
 deep.
 Yer fear fer yer senses, the thread as
 m'y bryke;
 Yer bryne nearly bursts wiv the stryne,
 Until in the gray o' the dawn yer awyke,
 An' a day-full o' fight comes agyne.

France's Fight Against "Kultur"

By Paul Sabatier

M. Paul Sabatier, author of the "Life of St. Francis of Assisi," has addressed the following eloquent letter to Professor Falcinelli, the President of the International Society for Franciscan Studies at Assisi, of which M. Paul Sabatier is Honorary President. It was written and published in The London Times, in reply to a letter in which Professor Falcinelli inclosed a resolution in favor of peace which the council of the society had passed shortly before Christmas. M. Paul Sabatier, one of whose brothers fell at Gravelotte in 1870, and whose only son is fighting in the Argonne, was for many years pastor at Strassburg after the German occupation. The great influence which he acquired in Strassburg rendered him obnoxious to the German authorities, who, after having failed to silence him, expelled him from Alsace. One of his books, "L'Orientation Religieuse de la France Actuelle," first revealed, some years ago, the moral strength of France. In his present letter he defines, for the benefit of his Italian friends and fellow-students of St. Francis, the spirit in which France regards the war.

MY Dear President: My hearty thanks for your cordial letter. I hasten to reply; excuse me if I do so more briefly than I should wish.

First let me express my delight that your friend and mine, Luzzatti, should have accepted the Presidency of the committee Pro Belgio. The noble Belgian Nation is doubtless to be pitied, but it is still more to be admired. Its tribulations will pass, but its laurels will not fade.

The Belgians went to certain destruction, with a firmness unexampled in history, in honor of a principle, whereas they might easily have secured handsome payment for granting a right of way through their country, and might also have made millions out of the German troops. Without a moment's hesitation, without giving a thought to these profits, they replied with a non possumus of which other nations have not, perhaps, understood the lofty heroism.

Dec. 29.—I was interrupted the other day and have not been able to continue before. I took advantage of the Christmas holidays to go and speak in the neighboring villages and to admire the quiet courage of our countryside. It is as though the words "In your patience possess ye your souls" had been spoken for our people.

As to my feeling about your manifestation in favor of peace, you understand, do you not, that, as a belligerent, and a belligerent the more determined in that I

was before firmly pacific, I look upon it all with an eye very different from yours? A Frenchman cannot now utter the word "peace." To use it would be akin to treason. When a quarrel is for money, or for a strip of territory, one can make peace without moral loss. To make peace when an ideal is at stake is an abdication; even to think of it is to be false to the voice which tells us that man is born for other things than to enjoy the moral and material heritage of his fathers.

It is the honor of Belgium, France, and their allies to have seen at once the spiritual nature of this war. No doubt we are fighting for ourselves, but we are fighting, too, for all peoples. The idea of stopping before the goal is reached cannot occur to us—and we find some difficulty in understanding how it can occur to lookers-on. We are grateful to them for the excellence of their intentions, but we are somewhat embarrassed by the thought that they are more careful of our physical than of our moral life. Our soldiers are martyrs; they bear witness to a new truth. Their defeat would mean the triumph in Europe of brute force, supported by the two spiritual forces which it has mobilized—science and religion. Before permitting that it is our duty to fight, without even thinking of what may befall. And if our soldiers go down to the last man everybody who had not yet taken up arms will fight to the last cartridge, to the last

stone of our mountains that we can hurl against a "Kultur" which is nought save worship of the sword and of the golden calf.

The France of today is fighting religiously. Catholics, Protestants, men of Free Thought, we all feel that our sorrows renew, continue, and fulfill those of the Innocent Victim of Calvary. But they are birth pangs; we may die of them, but we have not the right not to bless the present hour and to take up with rejoicing the task before us.

The peace which St. Francis preached was not peace at any price, peace as an end in itself. Like many others before him, he repeated "Righteousness and Peace have kissed each other"—righteousness first and then peace. There is no true or lasting peace that is not based on justice. He did not beg the people of Perugia no longer to make war on Assisi. He began by fighting them; and later on, at the end of his life, he did not preach peace to these same people, but told them that the wrongs they had committed would be avenged.

Besides, unless I am mistaken, you will soon feel what I am saying. It seems to me that Italy is preparing soon to enter the lists. She will come in at her own time for practical reasons, and also, I am sure, for reasons of ideal. And in the thrill of enthusiasm that will run through you all, from furthest Sicily to the Alpine peaks, you will feel the mysterious workings of spiritual creation, as yet incomplete, but which strives to realize itself in and by us. You will then see how necessary it is for a nation, as for a man, to take the rare chances that are offered him to fulfill his destiny and realize his ideal.

This is what our soldiers—I see it by

their letters—and what our peasants—I hear it in their talk—feel and understand better than I can express it. What France of the Crusades stammered, what France of the Revolution saw dimly, France today desires to accomplish. She believes with all her strength in victory because she has indomitable faith in the ideal of justice and truth that is in her heart. But she does not need to believe in victory in order to fight, for to give up fighting would be to betray her past, her ideal, her vocation. What matter that she die at her task if she has done her work?

The other day I read in a Swiss newspaper that one must go to France to see a people whom the war has not perturbed. It seems that in neutral Switzerland there is greater moral distress than in France. This is quite natural. In the ideal work we are now doing we have again found the secret of the life of nations—to labor together at a hard task and to be faithful to the Spirit of Life that is embodied in the Creation. This is why I have found no trace of hatred of the enemy or wish for reprisals in the letters of our soldiers, who are enduring what they endure.

My son Jacques is grateful for your thought of him. He is still in the first line in the Argonne. His last letter is dated Dec. 23.

Au revoir, my dear President. In these last days of 1914 I embrace you and wish I could embrace all the people of Assisi, the "black," the "red," and the "white"; for I shall never be able to tell you how fond I am of you all. Long live Italy! and may 1915 bring to the eldest of the Latin nations those victories, material and spiritual, that will reform Europe and place civilization itself on new foundations.



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The War and the Jews

By Israel Zangwill

Mr. Zangwill's article on "The War and the Jews" appeared in the *Metropolitan Magazine* for August, and the major part of it is here reproduced by permission.

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THE WANDERING JEW.

HERE is no luck for Israel," says the Talmud. Individual Jews are frequently shrewd and fortunate, but as a people Israel is, in his own expressive idiom, a Schlemihl, a hapless, ne'er-do-well. Twenty centuries of wandering find him concentrated precisely in the valley of Armageddon. And here in a hundred places he must again grasp the Wanderer's staff. Symbolic is the figure of the Chief Rabbi of Serbia wandering across Europe to beg for his pitiful flock. A workhouse and a hostel at London are congested with Belgian Jews. Forty ravaged towns have poured their Ghettos into Warsaw. Prague, Vienna, Budapest, seethe sullenly with refugees. A census taken of 4,653 Jews, who fled into Alexandria showed subjects of England, France, Russia, Spain, America, Turkey, Persia, Rumania, Italy, Greece and Serbia, while another thousand had already wandered further—to other Egyptian cities, to America, Australia, South Africa, Russia. The only important section of Jewry that has escaped the war is that which has poured itself into the American Melting Pot. And not only are ten of the thirteen millions of Jewry in the European cockpit; nearly three millions are at the fiercest centre of fighting—in Poland.

Poland—be it German, Russian or Austrian Poland—is pre-eminently the home of Jewry, and Poland even more than Belgium has been the heart of hell. For two of the Powers that combined to dismember it are now fighting the third across its fragments, and Jewish populations are at their thickest along those 600 miles of border country through which Russia invades East-Prussian

Poland or Galician Poland, Germany hacks her way toward Warsaw, or Austria hurls her counter-attacks.

The accident of a series of peculiarly wise and tolerant monarchs opened Poland to a large volume of Jewish immigration and even gave its Jews a measure of autonomy and dignity. They were the recognized providers of an urban and industrial population to a mainly agricultural people. Thus were they collected for the holocaust of to-day. For, of course, the partition of Poland left them still pullulating, whether in Prussian Danzig, Russian Warsaw or Austrian Lemberg. And not only have they duplicated the tragedy of the Poles in having to fight what is practically a civil war; not only have they suffered almost equally in the ruin of Poland so poignantly described by Paderewski, in the burnings, bombardings, pillagings, tramplings; not only have they shared in the miseries of towns taken and retaken by the rival armies, but they have been accused hysterically or craftily before both belligerents of espionage or treachery, and even of poisoning the wells, and crucified by both. Hundreds have been shot, knouted, hanged, imprisoned as hostages; women have been outraged, whole populations have fled, some before the enemy, many hounded out by their own military authorities, wandering—but not into the wide world. Into the towns outside the Pale they might not escape—these were not open even to the wounded soldier. In the long history of the martyr-people there is no ghastlier chapter. Yet it is lost—and necessarily lost—in the fathomless ocean of Christian suffering, in the great world-tragedy. But while Poland and Belgium are crowned

by their sorrows and cheered by the hope of rebirth, while the agony of Belgium has become an immortal heroic memory, the agony of Israel is obscure and unknown, unlightened by sympathy, unredeemed by any national prospect, happy if it only escape mockery. It is related that when one of these ejected foot-sore populations, wandering at midnight on the wintry roads, with their weeping children, met marching regiments of their own army, the women stretched out their hands in frantic beseechment to the Jews in the ranks. But the Jewish soldiers could only weep like the children—and march on.

TO THEIR TENTS, O ISRAEL.

"You are the only people," said Agrrippa, trying to hold back the Jews of Palestine from rising against the Roman Empire, "who think it a disgrace to be servants of those to whom all the world hath submitted." Today, servants of all who have harbored them, the Jews are spending themselves passionately in the service of all. At the outbreak of the war an excited Englishwoman, hearing that the Cologne Gazette, said to be run by Jews, was abusing England, wrote to me, foaming at the quill, demanding that the Jews should stop the paper. That the Jews do not exist, or that an English Jew could not possibly interfere with the patriotic journalism of a German subject, nay, that the abuse in the Cologne Gazette was actually a proof of Jewish loyalty, did not occur to the worthy lady. Yet the briefest examination of the facts would have shown her that the Jews merely reflect their environment, if with a stronger tinge of color due to their more vivid temperament, their gratitude and attachment to their havens and fatherlands, and their anxiety to prove themselves more patriotic than the patriots. It is but rarely that a Jew makes the faintest criticism of his country in war-fever, and when he does so, he is disavowed by his community and its press. For the Jew his country can do no wrong. Wherever we turn, therefore, we find the Jew prominently patriotic. In England the late Lord Rothschild presided

over the Red Cross Fund, and the Lord Chief Justice is understood to have saved the financial situation not only for England, but for all her allies. In Germany, Herr Ballin, the Jew who refused the baptismal path to preferment, the creator of the mercantile marine, and now the organizer of the national food supply, stands as the Kaiser's friend, interpreter and henchman, while Maximilian Harden brazenly voices the gospel of Prussianism, and Ernst Lissauer—a Jew converted to the religion of Love—sings "The Song of Hate." In France, Dreyfus—a more Christian Jew albeit unbaptized—has charge of a battery to the north of Paris, while General Heymann, Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor, commands an army corps. In Turkey, the racially Jewish Enver Bey is the ruling spirit, having defeated the Jewish Djavid Bey, who was for alliance with France, while Italy, on the contrary, has joined the Allies, through the influence of Baron Sonnino, the son of a Jew. The military hospitals of Turkey are all under the direction of the Austrian Jew, Hecker. In Hungary it is the Jews who, with the Magyars, are the brains of the nation. Belgium has sent several thousand Jews to the colors and at a moment when Belgium's fate hangs upon England, has intrusted her interests at the Court of St. James's to a Jewish Minister, Mr. Hymans. Twenty thousand Jews are fighting for the British Empire, fifty thousand for the German, a hundred and seventy thousand for the Austro-Hungarian, and three hundred and fifty thousand for the Russian. Two thousand five hundred Jews fight for Serbia. Even from Morocco and Tripoli come Jewish troops—they number 20 per cent. of the Zouaves. Nor are the British Colonies behind the French. From Australia, New Zealand, from Canada, South Africa, from every possession and dependency, stream Jewish soldiers or sailors. Even the little contingent from Rhodesia had Jews, and the first British soldier to fall in German Southwest Africa was Ben Robinson, a famous athlete. In Buluwayo half a company of reserves is composed of Jews.

When Joseph Chamberlain offered the

Zionists a plateau in East Africa the half-dozen local Britons held a "mass-meeting" of protest. Yet today, though the offer was rejected by the Zionists, fifty Jewish volunteers—among them Captain Blumenthal of the Artillery and Lieutenant Eckstein of the Mounted Rifles—are serving in the Defense Force enlisted at Nairobi. Letters from British Jews published in a single number of the Jewish World, taken at random, reveal the writers as with the Australian fighting force in Egypt, with the Japanese at the taking of Tsing-Tao, with the Grand Fleet in the North Sea, while the killed and wounded in the same issue range over almost every British regiment, from the historic Black Watch, Grenadier Guards, or King's Own Scotch Borderers down to the latest Middlesex and Manchester creations. The Old World and the New are indeed at clash when a Jewish sailor on Passover eve, in lieu of sitting pillowed at the immemorial ritual meal, is at his big gun, "my eye fixed to the telescopic lights and an ear in very close proximity to an adjacent navyphone, and the remainder of the time with my head on a projectile for a pillow." Anglo-Jewry, once the home of timorous mothers and Philistine fathers, has become a Maccabean stronghold. One distinguished family alone—the Spielmanns—boasts thirty-five members with the forces. A letter of thanks from the King has published the fact that an obscure Jew in a London suburb has five sons at the front.

And in all these armies the old Maccabean valor which had not feared to challenge the Roman Empire at its mightiest, and to subdue which a favorite General had to be detached from the less formidable Britain, has been proved afresh. "The Jewish bravery astonished us all," said the Vice Governor of Kovno, and, indeed, the heroism of the Russian Jew has become a household word. More than 300 privates—they cannot be officers—have been accorded the Order of St. George. One Jew, who brought down a German aeroplane, was awarded all four degrees of the order at once. In England Lieutenant de Pass won the Victoria Cross for carrying a wounded man

out of heavy fire, and perished a few hours later in trying to capture a German sap. In Austria up to the end of the year the Jews had won 651 medals, crosses, &c. "I give my life for the victory of France and the peace of the world," wrote a young immigrant Jew who died on the battlefield. A collection of letters from German soldiers, published by the Jewish Book-shop of Berlin, reveals equal devotion to Germany. And to the question, "What shall it profit the Jew to fight for the whole world?" a Yiddish journalist, Morris Myer, has found a noble answer. There is a unity behind all this seeming self-contradiction, he points out. "All these Jews are dying for the same thing—for the honor of the Jewish name."

THE RIDDLE OF RUSSO-JEWRY.

The devotion of the Jew to the British flag needs no explanation. Both socially and by legislation England has given the world a lesson in civilization. And if France only just escaped the pollution of the Dreyfus affair, if Germany and Austria are anti-Semitic in temper, all these countries have yet given the Jew his constitutional rights, and the Kaiser in particular has had the sense and the spirit to turn his ablest Jews into friends and henchmen. The appointment of several hundred officers during the war has probably removed the last tangible grievance of German Jewry. As for Turkey, she has been since 1492 a refuge of Jewry from Christian persecution, while Italy, which has had a Jewish Prime Minister as well as a Jewish War Minister (General Ottolenghi), stands equal with England in justice to the Jew. But that the Russian Jews, yet reeking from the blood of a hundred pogroms, should have thrown themselves into Russia's struggle with almost frenzied fervor, this is, indeed, a phenomenon that invites investigation, and invites it all the more because the Jews in America, remote from the new realities, continue their barren curses against Russia, and include in their malisons those who, like myself, proclaim the cause of the Allies the cause of civilization.

It would be easy to dismiss the enthusiasm of the Russian Jews as more politic than patriotic, or to say that they have made a virtue of necessity. But it bears all the marks of a sincere upwelling, a spiritual outreaching to their fellow-Russians. Such scenes as marked the proclamation of war have never been known in Russian Jewry. The Jewish Deputy in the Duma and the Jewish press were at one in proferring heart and soul to the country. From the Great Synagogue of Petrograd five thousand Jews, headed by the Crown Rabbi, marched to the Czar's Palace and, kneeling before it, sang Hebrew hymns and the Russian anthem. Their flags bore the motto, "There are no Jews or Gentiles now." At Kieff ten thousand Jews, carrying Russian banners and the Scrolls of the Law, paraded the town, and similar demonstrations occurred wherever Jews dwelt. A Warsaw writer records that the Jews wept with emotion in the synagogues as the prayed for Russia's victory. Thousands of youths who had escaped conscription offered themselves as volunteers; in Rostoff even a girl smuggled herself among them and went through several battles before she was detected. The older generation poured out its money in donatives. The Dowager Empress accepted and named a Red Cross Hospital. One wealthy Jew in the province of Kherson undertook to look after all the families of reservists in six villages, or 1,380 souls.

Something must, perhaps, be discounted for the hysteria and hypnosis of war time. And other factors than patriotism proper may have entered into the enthusiasm. The young generation had reached the breaking point. Baffled of every avenue of distinction, the most brilliant blocked from the schools and universities by the diabolical device of admitting even the small percentage by ballot and not by merit, grown hopeless of either Palestine without or the social revolution within, the young Jews hovered gloomily between suicide and baptism, between depravity and drink. Some with a last glimmer of conscience and faith had thought to

avoid the stigma of Christianity by becoming merely Mohammedans; others to dodge at least the Greek Church had exploited an Episcopalian missionary. But even for these Russia refused to open up a career. To this desperate generation the war came as an outlet from a blind alley, a glad adventure. Hence the reckless bravery on the battlefield. But there was reason, too, in the ecstasy. England, ever the Jew's star of hope, was at last to fight side by side with Russia. For the Russian the alliance was a pride, for the Jew an augury of liberty. The great democracies of the West would surely drag Russia in their train. And for the elders the fear of Germany was the beginning of wisdom. The very first day of the war she had taken possession of the undefended town of Kalicz on the Russian border, and in this town, more than a third Jewish, had initiated her policy of "frightfulness." And mingling with this sinister first impression came the stories of wealthy Jews returning from Karlsbad, Wiesbaden, and other Summer resorts from which they had been ejected as "alien enemies." The Jew began to cling to the devil he knew, to realize that, after all, Russia was his home.

But when every allowance is made for lower factors, there remains a larger and deeper truth underlying the enthusiasm, the truth which it takes a poet to feel and which found its best expression in the words of the Russo-Yiddish writer, Shalom Asch, whose dramas have been played in Berlin and whose books were published in English. Germany's aeroplanes had rained down on the Pale not bombs, but leaflets, announcing herself as the deliverer of the oppressed peoples under the Russian yoke and promising to grant the Jews equal rights. To these seductive attempts to exploit the Jewish resentment against Russia, Shalom Asch answered sternly: "'The oppressed peoples under the Russian yoke' have risen as one man against the German bird of prey. * * * The Jews are marching in the Russian ranks for the defense of their fatherland. Nor is it the youth alone

that has done its duty. In every town of Russia Jews have established committees; our sisters are joining the Red Cross, our fathers are collecting funds. * * * Thousands of Russo-Jewish volunteers have enlisted in France * * * even from America, where Germany has tried to exploit our sufferings, they are beginning to come. For this is not a war to defend the Russian bureaucracy which is responsible for the pogroms, but to defend the integrity of our fatherland. * * * Nor do we do our duty in order to 'earn' equal rights * * * but because, deeply hidden in our hearts, there is a burning feeling for Russia. * * * Look at America, where hundreds of societies and streets bear the names of our Russian towns. * * * No Pale, no restrictions, no

pogroms, can eradicate from our hearts this natural feeling of love for our country, and God be thanked for it! * * * Nobody gives a fatherland and nobody can take it away. We have been in Russia as long as the Slav peoples. The history of the Jews in Poland begins with the very first page of Polish history. Equal rights must be ours, because for a thousand years and more we have absorbed into our blood the sap of the Slav soil, the Slav landscape is reflected in our thought and imagination. *We shall fight against the system of government which refuses to recognize our equality, as we fought against it in 1905. But the Russian soil is sacred, it belongs to the peoples of Russia, and whoever dares to touch it will find in the Jew his first foe!*"

Poland, 1683—1915

By H. T. SUDDUTH.

Thy valor, Poland, stemmed the tide of fate
 Onrushing from the East in olden days,
 When proud Vienna saw, with dread amaze,
 Vast Turkish hosts before her walls, elate
 In victor pride, inflamed with zealot hate!
 Then Sobieski did thy banner raise
 Triumphant, bore it through the battle blaze,
 And saved from Crescent rule the Christian State!

And what was thy reward, O Land of Woe?
 'Twas thine to see thy kingdom torn and rent,
 And all a proud and vanquished people know
 Whose necks beneath a conqueror's yoke are bent!
 Yet thou hast kept through all thy centuried night
 An altar flaming clear with Freedom's light!

And now again the tide of war has swept
 In mightiest wave the world has ever known
 Across thy plains by battle scarred, and prone
 A nation lies! War's fury that long slept.
 To greater madness waked! The bounds it kept
 In older times are swept away, and strown
 Thy fields are with thy dead, while moan
 Of dying men shows where War's cohorts stept!

And Warsaw fair, where slow the Vistula flows,
 Where Kosciusko fell in Freedom's cause,
 Now once again a conqueror's presence knows
 While issue vast that all the world now awes
 Hangs trembling in the balance stern of Fate
 Whose dread decree all nations now await!

The Collective Force of Germany

By Gerhard von Schulze-Gaevernitz

Dr. von Schulze-Gaevernitz is Pro-Rector and Professor of Political Economy in the University of Freiburg and a member of the Reichstag. This article is part of an essay published by The New York Evening Mail, which Dr. Gaevernitz handed to The Mail's Berlin correspondent as an answer to his question: "What do the educated Germans really believe about England?" — The part selected contrasts the German ideal of collective efficiency with the British ideal of individual freedom.

ALTHOUGH the machinery creaks a bit, and for the time being friction is more apparent than the actual benefits, there has never been a more perfect organization of a free people than is evidenced in warring Germany of today. One of the most singular chapters of economic history is being written for the benefit of posterity. The socialization of the German State has been so rapid and complete that it will take science years to record what has been achieved. We can state also that Germany has never been economically so strong and so firmly knit together as now, after nearly a year of war.

Similar advancement is apparent in the technical field. Germany, like the sleeping beauty, has been aroused out of her century-long sleep by the electric spark which touches the blackness of anthracite to bring forth the magic colors of aniline dyes. War stimulated progress. Salt-petre was literally extracted from the air.

The great revolution in means of transportation since the days of Napoleon has benefited Germany more than any other nation, as Frederick List predicted. The Prussian railway system is not only the largest single enterprise in the world, but it is the most efficient mechanism ever created, typifying German unity and striking power. The railway has welded together nations which otherwise could hardly come into touch, such, for example, as Germany and Turkey.

With the help of her Allies and of such neutrals as are contiguous by land, and with her control of the Baltic Sea, and, through Turkey, of the Black Sea, Germany commands an economic terri-

tory which could support itself for years in case of necessity. And these changes have been effected during a period when the British industrial has been losing its mobility!

In a moral and intellectual sense, also, England has been living the life of a retired capitalist, the richest capitalist of the world. England's tremendous heritage still towers over her head as a globe encompassing dome, but the foundation arches of this heaven-storming structure are cracking. The religious life of the Anglo-Saxon has aged into formalism, and, having lost the power of adapting itself to scientific progress, is degenerating into little more than hypocrisy.

"No Englishman," said Carlyle, "any longer dares to pursue Truth. For 200 years he has been swathed in lies of every sort." And even that phenomenon of disintegration called "Enlightenment," which England never succeeded in outgrowing, offers no substitute for the truths that slipped from her as her religion withered into formalism; no mechanical formula will solve the riddle of the universe; no utilitarian calculation of happiness will satisfy the anxious longings of the heart.

Herein lies England's internal danger; here gapes the abyss which Carlyle and Emerson sought to bridge with building stones of German philosophy.

And, in fact, it was upon German soil that the basic lines of that universal temple were thought out which was to furnish a new home for the searching human spirit. German idealism outstripped the British mind since it fused puritanism and enlightenment to a higher unity. The rigid greatness of puritan-

ism lived on in old Prussia, to which it had always been bound by threads of spiritual history. But Kant placed this same old Prussia upon the judgment seat of reason when he vanquished the greatest skeptic of all times, David Hume, the final product of British thought.

Amid the doubts of the intellect and the perplexities of the soul the "mandate of duty" becomes the granite block upon which man can rise to "freedom" and bring "order" into his affairs—"order" into conflict between knowledge and desire of the man who understands and acts. Looking up from that rock man inevitably attains to faith in God and to confidence in an all-embracing plan of salvation, even when in places the continuity of the ordained purpose remains veiled in darkness.

But the synthesis achieved by German thought was even richer than this. When old Prussia allied itself with Western Germany, with its warmer blood and its quicker perceptions of art, duty and individual liberty were merged in the "idea of the whole"—from Kant to Hegel!

The discipline of the individual as a part of the social whole is, for the German, no servitude, as the Briton is wont to imagine, but a higher step toward freedom. For the individual in that way confers the place of transcendent value upon society.

"Law seems to bind with rigid fetters Only the mind of the slave who spurns it."

The collective force of Germany, which interlocks the free individual with the social whole, is stronger than the forceful individuals whom old England produced. This tendency is observable in the German Army, in German state enterprises, and in the kartel organization of German capital. At his best the Briton succeeded in subjecting the world to British dominion through strong personalities for the glory of a world-strange God.

The German, on the other hand, does his best in creating a highly organized community for the purpose of furthering in society the historic development of eternal values. Thus the idea of the Kingdom of God (*Civitas Dei*) and its

visible manifestation in the Christian Church, continue to produce beneficent results. Corresponding to this difference in philosophic outlook between the two races, there is a difference in political aims. The formal freedom of the Briton the German regards only as the first step beyond which he must go by bringing about a rational organization of the State for material justice, and in this respect the Prussian State Socialist and the Social Democrat are at one.

The German strives for rational order, where the British ideal of competition places the blind forces of finance upon an arbitrary throne. No one knew this better than an Englishman himself—Carlyle—who thought that Germany when she took the lead in Europe had secured several hundred years more for the attempt to build out of the germs then in existence a new social order.

Beyond these national aims the German does not strive for world dominion, but for a rational organization of the world on the basis of voluntary co-operation. Kant's "Eternal Peace" is to him an ideal always to be striven for, even though unattainable. But between this indefinite remote aim—"One flock and one shepherd!"—and the today, full of national antagonisms, the German believes that he can realize certain intermediate steps through a welding for a federal union of nations akin in interests and civilization.

That such a political organization can be expected Germany has proved by its kartels, wherein stronger and weaker units exist with advantage to all. Switzerland, essentially German in character, constitutes such a federation, comprising three of the principal European nationalities. Similarly, Austria-Hungary should be such a federation, assuring equal rights to Germans, Magyars, Romanians, west and southern Slavs.

A commercial and political union of the two Central European powers lay in the direction of Bismarck's thoughts, and is today more than ever felt as a need consequent upon the present brotherhood in arms. By leaning upon such a Central European nucleus the Germanic States of the north and Slavic States of the south-

east would obtain the advantages of State organization on a large scale without losing their independence.

But the German idea of a federation of nations goes still further. It is no Utopia; no idler's day dreams to safeguard the peace of the Western European Continent by a league of its principal powers. Such a peaceful confederacy among Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, and Italy would consolidate and unite nations that have vital interests in common. This would furnish a balance to England's sea monopoly and world-power which for centuries has been the source of Europe's strife. Demands for such a federation will make themselves felt after the madness of the present war.

The war with France was entirely avoidable, for Germany demanded from France nothing but her neutrality. And why did France go to war? The French themselves, in the territory now occupied by us, have answered again and again: "Nobody knows why!" The war with England was not quite so groundless, but it, too, could have been avoided because it was in England's ultimate interest to

accept the position of "first among equals," ("Primus inter pares.") But war with Russia was inevitable at some time or other.

Germany might have waged it, with Western Europe neutral, for the liberation of the Russian people itself, for the independence of the subjugated nationalities, and for the security of neighboring people menaced by "Holy Russia." There may have been a time when tyranny and serfdom were essential to the education of mankind. But today the time has come for the organization, instead, of free units, each protected by the whole—a German conception of civilization.

The ideal of organization, the thought of a tremendously valuable whole, uniting its free members for effective work, labors in the sub-consciousness of millions of Germans; labors even where it does not come to the light of philosophic discussion. The very fact that our opponents call us "barbarians" proves that these ultimate sources of strength are closed to them and that they cannot gauge our power and invincibility, but only imitate externals.

The Flow of Tears

By the Bishop of Lund

[From King Albert's Book.]

AMID the press of incalculable sorrows, of which this terrible war is the cause, there is yet one element which uplifts the spirit as we contemplate it. From every country which is involved in the war there is evidence that that nation is united, that no schism of class or party exists, but that all citizens are one in accepting every sacrifice which may be required for the safety and honor of the fatherland.

Little can he who stands afar off from the scene of fighting realize how much suffering has already been caused and must continue to be caused by this struggle. To comprehend the agony one must live, day by recurrent day, under the very experience of anxiety and loss. But sympathy we give from the depths of our hearts, sympathy to all the nations who are taking their part in this war; most of all to Belgium, which, so far as we can understand, has suffered most.

And inwardly we yearn to see advance every effort made to stanch the flow of tears.

A Cheerful German Emperor

By Dr. Ludwig Ganghofer

An interview with "a changed Kaiser, a joyous, triumphant Kaiser," is described in the *Münchener Neueste Nachrichten* by Dr. Ludwig Ganghofer, the German novelist, who at an earlier stage of the war described a meeting with the Kaiser on the west front, and again in the east just before Italy's entry into the war, when the weight of adverse events was pressing heavily upon the German ruler. In the latest article, however, Ganghofer describes the War Lord triumphant as the German forces swept through Lemberg and onward into Russian Poland. His account appears below.

LET me narrate, without omission, wandering back to the Lake of Janow and feeling again the glowing evening hour in which I saw that the German Kaiser had arrived. I did not want to stay, did not wish to intrude; wanted to go away after I had seen with joy how happy and lively the Kaiser was, how healthy and fresh and full of strength he looked—no longer so serious and severe as on the 8th of May, when I was permitted to see him at the depot at Brzeskow, that time when the impression of the victorious Spring days on the Dunajec was embittered and overshadowed for him by worry about the decision of Italy. Worry? No! What then spoke so seriously and severely out of the eyes of the Kaiser was neither care nor wrath—it was the painful sorrow for an event which he saw coming and in which, in spite of all, he could not believe, because it seemed incomprehensible and impossible to him in the loyalty of his own nature.

In those days that followed, from the 20th to the 24th of May, the question intruded itself a hundred times upon me, "How will this heavy disappointment affect the Kaiser?" And now, when I saw the Kaiser in the wood of Janow, standing over there in the clearing, under the thunder song of the cannon, so erect, so joyous in the fateful hour, and so full of life—now I had my answer, the answer that made me happy! As the Kaiser was, so he is still! Those who are strong within do not change. Let happen what may, they do not bow, they do not stoop under their burdens. Therefore they are victors. One foe more or less does not count.

I wanted to depart.

"Herr Doctor," inquired an officer, stepping up to me, "will you not wait?"

I shook my head. My clothes were soiled and dusty, my hands gray, my face covered with perspiration.

"I beg of you, stay! The Kaiser has already seen you. Here he comes."

With a cordial smile the Kaiser extended his hand to me:

"Ganghofer! Are you everywhere?"

I reported where I had come from, and the Kaiser made me happy by saying:

"The news has just come in that the Russians have been driven out of the advanced point of support by the next corps."

"Indeed!" It came as a cry of joy from my heart. One always hears joyful news from the Kaiser! I had to tell him about myself, and the Kaiser asked how long I would remain with the army. I told him at least until Lemberg.

"You are good," laughed the Kaiser gayly; and then he grew serious: "You are right; energetically to wish for something which is necessary helps to attain it."

And when he heard that since early morning I had been on my legs, he asked immediately: "Have you eaten your mid-day meal anywhere?" I shook my head.

"For heaven's sake! Then you must have something at once!"

He ordered a cup of tea brought to me and two big slices of cake; thrust one hand into a tin box that was on the table, and stuffed my coat pocket with zwieback. And while he was speaking with me I had to nibble all the time, for he kept urging me: "Eat, please eat!"

In reporting to him about my travels

on the front in the last few weeks I told him also that I had met Sven Hedin in Przemysl. The Kaiser's eyes lighted at the mention of the name, and he said quickly: "I am very glad that you made his acquaintance. This Swede is a splendid man. If you see him again, pray greet him cordially for me."

Then followed a few moments in which an embarrassing fear seemed to choke me. High above us a whirring sound made itself heard in the air, ever louder and louder. A Russian aviator! He came from the east, glowed in the red evening sun like a lightning bug, and flew over the clearing almost perpendicularly above us. Surely he must see the many persons down here! And if he—no, I could not think out this harrowing thought! And now the fear has already passed. Behind the rapidly vanishing gadfly of war a little cloud of shrapnel puffed up. The Kaiser stood there calmly looking up and said:

"Too low."

The next shots also fell short of the flier. The Kaiser nodded meditatively.

"Ay, to have wings—for the others that always means to come too late."

He turned suddenly toward me, looked at me, and again in his eyes there was that sorrowing earnestness like that at the depot of Brzeskow on May 8. And when he spoke his voice had a subdued ring, although he emphasized each syllable severely and slowly:

"Ganghofer, what do you think about Italy?"

Could I but portray the tone of those words! That was no query that demanded an answer from me; it was a painful recollection of the Kaiser, a confession of his inmost thought, a renewed amazement at the impossible that could not

happen, but had nevertheless happened. In Brzeskow the Kaiser had the firm belief: "Even if a part of the Italian people may be led astray by the war jingoes, we can depend upon the King!" And now the glance of the Kaiser, in this half murmured query, so shook me that my eyes almost grew moist, and that silently I gritted my teeth. Only after a pause could I say:

"Your Majesty, it is better as it has come to pass. Better for Austria and for us. The clean table is always the most valuable piece of furniture in the honest house."

The Kaiser nodded. He breathed deep, straightening up; and again joyous calm shone in his eyes.

And then, in farewell, the Kaiser told me something that fell like a brilliant prophecy into my joyous, startled soul. Today I must still keep silent about this something, although I know that it would be a refreshing draught for millions in the homeland, a deep well-spring of faith, a new steel band for holding them together. But for important reasons I may tell about this word of the Kaiser only on the day when it shall have become truth. That day will come soon.

The evening began to draw on. Under the restless grumbling and rolling echoes the Kaiser went from battery to battery. The trip home became for me a dreaming joy, a foreshadowing fraught with rich pictures.

On the following night, at Jaroslav, about the first hour of morning, the Commanding General von Mackensen sent word to me:

"Depart as early as possible! The Russian position at the Lake of Janow has been captured. Tomorrow Lemberg will fall."

The War of Notes

[From *Truth*.]

Opposed the two musicians sat;
Each twanged his rival harp;
Fritz thought at first that Sam was flat,
But found him soon grow sharp.

Yet up each straining tone still floats,
Grows strident more and more.
I wonder if this war of notes
Shall end on notes of war!



ACTUAL STATE COUNCILOR BARK

Minister of Finance of Russia

(Photo from Bain News Service)



DR. J. LOUDON
Minister of Foreign Affairs for Holland
(Photo (c) by Harris & Ewing, from Paul Thompson)

Self-Sustaining Germany

By the War Committee of German Industries

The following article is reproduced from Pamphlet 13 of the Authoritative Propaganda of Reassurance Conducted by the War Committee of German Industries in Berlin.

IN the present war Germany's enemies are endeavoring to bring about the economic as well as physical collapse of the German people by cutting off the overseas imports of food and rawstuffs. The imports in these important articles were before the war very large, and the enemies of Germany have succeeded in diminishing them to a great degree. On the other hand, they have not by the action attained the goal they had hoped to.

Even now every thinking person outside of Germany must be fully aware that, in spite of the diminution of the imports in provisions, the German civil population and the army are not threatened with starvation. Above all, however, German science has found ways and means of replacing the raw materials now lacking by materials of like value at present being reproduced in Germany. For example, an economically successful method of extracting nitrogen from the air, whereby the German powder industry and German agriculture are supplied with this otherwise missing raw-stuff, has been discovered. The importation of petroleum having more or less completely ceased, this supply has also given out. Gas and electricity, for whose manufacture only coal, of which Germany has large quantities, is necessary, have taken its place as illuminants. The lack of fodder has been in part compensated for by an invention whereby the food values in straw are made accessible for feeding stock. And now another discovery is to be recorded which is not only of great importance as assuring the nourishment of our cattle, but arouses the greatest astonishment as an act of scientific boldness. The Institut für Gärungsgewerbe (Institute for Yeast Industries) in Berlin has discovered a process for making food yeast with over 50 per

cent. albumen in the simplest manner from sugar and ammonium sulphate. These quantities of albumen will easily replace the supplies of fodder barley that were formerly imported. Since ammonia is not only a by-product in the manufacture of coke, but can also be obtained directly from the air, this method has been correctly described as the extraction of albumen from the air.

These inventions, which will doubtless be followed by others in the course of the war, will have, above all, an effect on the financial world. Germany's enemies are compelled to draw a large part of their supplies of ammunition and arms, as well as provisions, from abroad. Since at the same time the purchasing power and prosperity of large transmaritime territories have been seriously damaged by the European war, the enemies of Germany are drawing smaller incomes from their foreign investments, while the exports of these countries have diminished during the same period. The excess of imports over exports in the foreign trade of Germany's enemies has, therefore, in the course of this war been enormously increased.

The result of this is that the payment of the very considerable sum to foreign countries which they have to make for these increased imports is made on the basis of an exchange very unfavorable for Germany's enemies. The argument that the exchange rate is unfavorable to Germany bears little weight here, for, in consequence of the interruption of German foreign trade, Germany has, in comparison with times of peace, small payments to make to foreign countries. The enemies of Germany, however, are compelled to pay in cash not only the contract sums, but also the deficit caused by the unfavorable rate of exchange.

The enemies of Germany have now

tried every means, or, rather, have been compelled to do so, in order to influence the rate of exchange. England has shipped some of the gold at her disposal in Canada to the United States. Russia and France have taken up foreign loans, not to get new cash but to make payments to their foreign creditors from the balances thus created, and thereby avoid the exchange. According to recent reports, England intends doing the same thing, in order thus to relieve the embarrassment caused her by the turn the exchange rate has taken.

But it must be remembered that the taking up of such foreign loans does not do away with the burdens imposed by the unfavorable rate of exchange, but simply postpones its effect until after the treaty of peace. These countries have, as it were, capitalized the losses growing out of the exchange rate and had their payment postponed by taking up foreign loans. But after the war the interest on these loans, as well as the sums for the liquidation of the debts, will all flow into the coffers of the foreign nations, and thus continue to influence the international monetary basis.

Matters will have quite a different aspect for Germany after the treaty of peace. Germany will then not be indebted abroad, as the costs of the war are all being covered at home. On the other hand, in consequence of the new discoveries made during the war and the newly built factories, she will be in a position to reduce the necessary payments to foreign countries and improve her exchange rate.

If the Germans, indirectly forced to it by the war, continue to use gas and electricity instead of petroleum, artificial nitrates instead of saltpeter, strawmeal and artificial fodder yeasts instead of fodder barley, in large quantities, the war will have brought about a strengthening of Germany's international financial position. Germany's enemies will then in this respect have shown themselves to be a power which, like Mephisto in Goethe's "Faust," always strives to evil and accomplishes only what is good.

Contrary to the deprecating assertions

of her enemies, the economic life of Germany is in the course of the war developing in a manner which, in consideration of the extraordinary conditions, may be said to be more than satisfactory. It is well known that the deposits of the German savings banks are constantly increasing. This in part explains the huge success of the war loan. Meanwhile, the German postal check service has reached a figure never touched before the war. During March, 1915, the number of persons having postal bank accounts in the imperial postal territory was 105,473—818 more than in the previous month. In March the credits on these postal check accounts amounted to 2,142,000,000 marks, as against 1,779,000,000 in February and 1,875,000,000 in January of the same year; and the debits amounted to 2,124,000,000 marks, as against 1,764,000,000 in February and 1,877,000,000 in January. The payments made through this medium amounted, accordingly, to 2,352,000,000 marks in March, as against 1,982,000,000 and 2,020,000,000 in February and January, respectively.

These figures are seen in their true light when we remember, for example, that in the period Jan. 1-April 10, 1915, the withdrawals from the French savings banks amounted to 44,065,088 francs more than the deposits. The commercial war started by Germany's enemies seems to agree with them much worse than with the country they attacked.

The nations * * * being courted by the Allies have so far been able to keep their heads cool. They consider, and rightly, too, how much of all that which is promised in time of need the Allies will do or be able to do, and whether or not some reasonable national ideal may be realized at less cost than participation in this bloody struggle. But even should the future have surprises in store for us, the quiet confidence of the central powers that they will attain their goal is not to be shaken. For this goal is not the subjugation of the world, as their envious enemies would have it appear, but simply the desire to be freed from the strangle hold which hindered them in their normal development. It is not that Germany has a lust for world

empire, but that England has hitherto haughtily assumed the rôle of world ruler. That she no longer has the power to force her will upon the whole world

the course of the war has shown; it should also have shown in what manner she would use this power were she ever again in a position to possess it.

The Wealth of William II.

By R. Franklin Tate

The following estimate of the personal fortune of the German Emperor appeared in The London Daily News of July 29 as special Paris correspondence:

TIt was stated recently that the Kaiser had already lost by the war a sum of four millions sterling. The Temps, while recognizing that he must have suffered heavy losses, shows that this statement is not borne out by what we know of the Kaiser's private affairs.

At the time of the financial census for the assessing of the tax which was to provide the sum of 40 millions sterling as a war contribution the Kaiser stood first among his subjects with an income of £900,000, whereas he only stood third in the general classification of fortunes. Frau Bertha Krupp von Bohlen headed the list with 83 millions sterling and an income of £640,000 per annum; Prince Henckel von Donnersmarck was second with 10 millions and an income of £520,000 per annum. The Kaiser's visible annuities, according to the same statistics, were: Civil list, £875,000; rents, &c., £175,000; interest on Crown Treasury, £225,000.

According to the same statistics, his visible estate consisted of: Real estate, Crown forests, &c., £3,500,000; developed estate, £2,000,000; property in Berlin, £900,000; total, £6,400,000. In transferable securities: 1, Crown treasure, established by Frederick William III. after the battle of Jena, together with the addition of £250,000 made by William I. out of the French indemnity of 200 millions sterling—making a total of one million sterling; 2, the Kaiser's share of the fortune of four millions sterling left by William I.; 3, the Kaiser's investments since he came to the throne.

It is impossible to estimate these investments, but the Kaiser is known to have a big holding in the Hamburg-Amerika, the Reichsbank, and especially Krupp. For this purpose he figures under the name of Privy Councilors Müller and Grimm. His share in William I.'s fortune is estimated at £125,000.

Admitting that William II. inherited something under the will of Queen Victoria, that he has saved money, and that his investments have proved lucrative, his fortune at the beginning of the war may have been about two and a half to three millions sterling. But with the exception of Krupp his investments have all depreciated enormously.

English and German Ideals of God

By Eden Phillpotts

The following article, which originally appeared in The London Daily Chronicle, is here reproduced by special permission of the author.

"Our Good Old God."—THE KAISER.

A GREAT religious idea is declared to be under the watchword of "Teuton above All." Their Kaiser to the Germans represents more than a King; he is the right hand of the King of Kings, and his subjects' eyes assume a reverential expression, their speech drops a note, when they say "Our Kaiser." The nation is, moreover, Christian; it subscribes to one faith and professes the Christian ideal.

We may assume that, even in the face of their present opposition, all the contending powers would agree that there is but one God. There is but one God of the Germans and of the English, of the Austrians and the French, of the Belgians and the Turks. We are not concerned with His prophets, but Himself. It suits Germany to predicate a Jaweh, who regards with approval their doctrines of "Frightfulness" and a "necessity" that may be greater than any human oath; it better serves our purpose to protest at this conception and declare for a God of mercy and forgiveness and truth. Their God inspires them to strike for themselves and seek to impose the ideal of their reigning classes upon the rest of the world; our God inclines us to recognize the sovereign rights of all mankind, be they weak or strong, able or impotent. We argue that the accident of Belgium's salvation embracing our own has nothing to do with our action: that had Belgium been Serbia and our word given, we should have similarly set forth on her behalf.

Now, the English and German ideals cannot both be of God, because they contradict each other. We may argue that the virus of hate which has for the moment poisoned German thinking cannot be an inspiration of Heaven, since it leads

to no culture, breeds bad air, and results in a mental and physical condition of absolute exhaustion from which no temporal or spiritual advantage can possibly spring to man or race; they, on the other hand, characterize their ebullition as righteous wrath and the just outcome of what they conceive to be our present attitude to them. We speak of "envy, hatred, and malice"; they describe the same emotion as the natural outpouring of a nation's spirit, which finds itself frustrated, foiled, outraged by a sister nation with a giant's power and the evil will to use it like a giant.

There would seem no common ground of reconciliation. A kingdom spoon fed by its rulers and trained to the platter of a fettered press has slowly absorbed ideals which we view with distrust and dislike; while their wisest and best are honestly of opinion that things have come to such a pass with Germany that only her cannon can make civilization listen to her. Her philosophers have subscribed to that opinion and hold that the conspiracy of Europe to deny their country the right to impose her culture (or Kultur, i. e., Civilization) upon it, can only be put down with fire and sword. But a nation that cringes to a Junker Lieutenant has ostracized its well-wishers, and for Herr Lamprecht to declare that Germany is the freest country in the world simply means that he and his fellow-kinsmen have forgotten what freedom is. A Goethe or Schiller, could they return, would find Germany chained and manacled.

On our part, with an immense and, for the most part, successful experience of colonization, we hold that any imposition is fatal, and that to speak of "England over all" would be to destroy our

empire with a phrase. We have seldom attempted this political folly, but rather allowed existing nations influenced by us to preserve their individuality and encouraged new nations sprung of our loins to develop their own genius in their own way. When we fell from this ideal, as we have done, swift and terrible punishment followed. The Indian Mutiny was born of our errors; the United States exist as an everlasting monument to our fatuity. We placed a mighty and proud people in an impossible position, and they shook off our dust from their feet forever.

But our ideals have stood the test of time; those of Germany, tested by our achievements, have only to be stated to be condemned. We decline to believe that any State has Divine authority to impose itself upon the world; we see nothing, and the world sees nothing, in Germany's present principles, practices, or purposes to justify the belief that their acceptance would make of earth a happier, freer, and more contented abiding place. We deplore only an unexampled arrogance, an extraordinary lack of the perspective sense, an ideal absolutely unjustified by any appeal to history or religion.

The fact, however, remains that religious, political, industrial, and racial Germany is at one in this adventure. Monist Haeckel, Christian Harnack, mystic Eucken, agree that their country must and shall be first; and if the world, declining the super-position of Germany, takes measures to oppose it, then they hold all means are justified to overcome the world. Every teaching of Christianity, every precept of justice, every bright maxim of humanity polished through the centuries may be discarded before this ambition. Infinite evil may be done that the infinite good they foresee shall at last be attained, and it matters not whether the "good old God" of the Kaiser be floated to his throne on the blood of a widowed world, so long as he arrives, to be acclaimed and worshipped by the remainder of mankind.

We have now an impartial account of the atrocities in Belgium, and, allowing for the inevitable, "atrocities" is not too strong a word. Drunken men inflamed

with the passion of fighting and in the shadow of their own deaths will do evil things, though it remains to be seen whether British culture has so far permeated our trained troops that they annoy themselves similar excesses; but the real atrocity was a part of the campaign, premeditated, plotted. Germany took with her machines which would make the task of burning Belgium swift and easy; her "fearfulness" was long ago worked out in cold blood at the headquarters of her high command. She will bring these tools here if she can. The machinery by which she set out to do the will of her Kaiser and her God is before the world, and if it be possible to say that her reigning class was alone responsible for it, we have also to admit that every other class applauded it, sanctioned it, and hoped that it would prevail. The nation must, therefore, be confident that God also approves these methods, and that, in His name, the Fatherland will fight and conquer with them.

One may note in passing that neutral States have uttered no public word before her horrific achievements. No King, no President has allowed enthusiasm for humanity to open his mouth and record a whisper of protest from any nation in the enjoyment of peace. They know that moral influence is as powerful as the sword, but abstain from exerting it, since at present to state their opinion of Louvain, or Rheims, or the massacre at Andenne, would be an unfriendly act. The neutral ruler sells his soul for his country's peace and in the name of politics. As politics are constituted that is often the sudden sacrifice they demand, and few be they who will make it.

There is but one God, and all who believe in Him, from the primate to an infant schoolchild, agree that His will is presently to be done, and that the issue of this catastrophe lies in His keeping. Neither the nations that are fighting nor any others doubt this fact for an instant. The minority in all States who deny a supreme intelligence and believe that blind Forces rather than one all-seeing and self-conscious Will are responsible for the war, need not be considered at this time.

And here lies the tremendous plea for reason when the end comes, the forceful appeal to the losers to accept the will of the only God, and recognize that once again, through the destruction of civilization, His eternal purpose is made manifest. At present each side is conscious of its own rectitude; but, when the issue has been determined, it behooves the nations crowned with the diadem of victory, and those who sit in sackcloth and ashes, alike to acknowledge that God in which they believe has conquered and His ways have been justified to man.

There is no other course open to a God-fearing and God-trusting kingdom. If peace finds us a protectorate of Germany, or Germany deprived forever of her Prussian Poland, her French acquisitions of 1870 and her Hohenzollerns, we, or she, must be equally prepared to say "The Lord's will be done." We must in the event of defeat confess that a democratic ideal has not at present the sanction of Devine wisdom; while Germany, if the fortunes of war leave her naked and stricken, should be prepared to grant that her determination to conquer the world for the good of the world was based on a fearful misreading of the Almighty's purpose.

Such a confession should abate bitterness and banish after-hatreds. It would be no more than logical from God-guided and God-fearing nations; and if those in authority publicly declared to their beaten land that all must accept without murmuring the just payment of their unfortunate errors, then such a doctrine should speedily leaven the lump of the defeated and help to reconcile them to their Master's will.

The truth about the world's belief in God must emerge from this peace. To argue that the war itself proves very sufficiently that nothing but an academic adherence is accorded to the theory of a Supreme Being, is vain, since both sides (in different senses) argue this a Holy War and cry to one God to bless their opposing banners; but the outcome cannot fail to determine whether civilization still veritably believes; and not only the attitude of the beaten nations to their faiths, but also the power of their faiths to control their conduct in defeat and direct their subsequent destinies will challenge deep scrutiny in this generation and provide a fruitful field for such philosophic writers as examine the question in years to come.

Savings

[From the London Daily Chronicle]

Here a little and there a little,
Paring away the waste;
Courses shortened and waistbelts tautened,
Drilling the spendthrift taste;
Freaks of fashion and pleasure's passion
Disciplined, checked and chaste.

Here a little and there a little,
Tighten the leaking cork.
Taste the phial of self-denial,
Saving is storing work;
Purse-strings tighter will help the
fighter,
War to the knife—and fork!

A. W.

Touring Europe in War Time

By Mme. L. de Hegermann-Lindencrone

Writer of "The Sunny Side of Diplomatic Life," published a few months ago, and of "In the Courts of Memory," which appeared last year, Mme. L. de Hegermann-Lindencrone has won a unique place in the hearts of American readers with her vigorous sketches of an American woman's life in the capitals and Courts of Europe. The following article reassuring travelers recounts her recent experiences, starting from Copenhagen, Denmark, where she has lived for several years since her husband retired from the Danish Diplomatic Service, and crossing Germany through the Alps into Italy. As a story of tranquil Germany and of traveling in war time it is in marked contrast to many of the stories we read.

YOU have certainly read the many harrowing accounts, written, of course, by eyewitnesses, of the difficulties and dangers which beset those wishing to travel through Europe in these (w)awful days.

Although all newspapers abroad and at home were full of direful stories, and although they warned people from venturing abroad and advising them strongly to remain at home, we determined to start for Italy.

I was particularly anxious to get away from the cloudy north and longed for sunshine and flowers.

The obstacles that we would encounter were put forward in a lurid light, but we turned a deaf ear to everything, and, as the saying goes, "Ce que femme veut, Dieu le veut," the wish of the "femme" seemed about to be fulfilled—my husband being the "Dieu" and I being the "femme."

I will jot down some of the things which, according to all probability, were to happen to us.

In the first place—the mines. The Baltic Sea, which we had to cross, would be full of mines. The only way to avoid them would be to sail to Norway, from there to Edinburgh, then a boat could carry us to Genoa. This seemed a rather roundabout way, and would take almost a month to get to our destination, whereas by the regular route through Germany and Switzerland the journey would only take *two days*. We decided to risk the mines. We thought being blown up rather a novel sensation. The large ferryboats that ply between Denmark and Germany, as a general rule, take

two or three passenger cars, and as many others to carry the post and baggage. Now there are none but cattle wagons, filled with poor cows on their way to be slaughtered in Rostock and destined to feed the German Army. No boats cross at night.

Secondly, it would be dangerous to speak any other language than German. We pooh-poohed at this. Why should we not talk German? This obstacle was therefore barred out. None but German books should be found among our things. If we wished to write letters, they would have to be written in German. Letters in other languages would be examined and perhaps destroyed by the police. We said we did not object to write letters and postal cards in German.

At the Custom Houses on the different frontiers we were admonished that we would be submitted to the severest searching. The men, from the very linings of their hats to the soles of their boots, and all their possessions would be dragged out of their pockets and all their papers searched. Women would be forced to let down their hair. Even their hatpins and shoelacings would be under suspicion! There would be no end of annoyances and delays at every moment.

We said that we did not care. We were sure that, armed to the hilt as we were with passports and documents, we would not be troubled.

Among minor obstacles it was mentioned that the trains would not be heated and that we would freeze to death. We answered that we did not like over-heated compartments.

All the trains would be belated. There

would be no restaurant cars, no sleeping cars, no porters. We should be obliged to carry our traps ourselves. There would be no vehicles of any kind to meet the trains. We should have to walk to the hotels.

We risked being shut up with closed windows in stifling compartments, surrounded by insolent soldiers, probably smoking vile pipes, and also we risked that our wagon would be left on a side track for hours in order to let the trains with soldiers pass.

It certainly was not a pleasant outlook. Our friends and family saw us, in their minds' eye, starved, frozen, arrested, maltreated, and I don't know what more. Had we listened to and believed all that was predicted we never would have dared to sally forth, making straight, as we were doing, for the lion's den. However, our gigantic foolhardiness made us blind to arguments and forecastings. We fixed the day, and off we started.

Our family, convinced that they were seeing the last of us, came in a body to the station to "speed the parting" souls—not to say fools—some with flowers, as a sort of "last tribute." They would have thought it quite in keeping had our farewell words been "morituri salutamus," followed by a flood of tears. Even up to the final whistle they said: "You can still change your minds—it is not too late now to stay."

Before we started we four (my husband, my son, myself, and my maid) were obliged to have our photographs taken and glued on to the corners of our different passports.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs was up to its ears preparing these documents, and the Legations of Germany, Italy, and Switzerland had been busy writing special letters to their Custom House officers in order to facilitate our passage through those dreadful places of torture. The German Minister sent a particularly helpful telegram to the commanding officer at Warnemünde, the landing place in Germany.

Behold us, then, on our way comfortably ensconced in our compartment with one other occupant—a Swiss gentleman, as we found out later by prudent diplo-

matic proddings. He had just come from Norway; he had his head on his shoulders, that is to say, he had not been mined nor blown up! Thus far we were encouraged, for if a person can travel from Norway to Denmark why not from Denmark to Germany? We feared that the blinding blizzard which accompanied us through Denmark would prevent the boat from leaving its shores, but when we reached Gjedser (Denmark) the sky was clear and the sea as calm as on a Summer day.

A little after we had passed the Danish light boat we saw an aeroplane flying over our heads, (a German one, of course.) The people on board (those who think they know everything) were sure that it was sent by the German Government to guard against the mines. Whether this was true I can't tell, but the protecting angel hovered over us all the way and guided us safely to land under its buzzing wings.

On the boat the only German we spoke was to ask for our coffee. This being a German boat, we should in any case have talked its language. Thus far we had escaped mines, bombs, and language. . . .

The next ordeal was the Custom House.

The passengers filed out on the platform and were shown into the shed which serves as the Custom House.

The soldiers who were walking about with guns on their shoulders were polite and not at all warlike or aggressive.

We were about to follow the others when out stepped from the crowd a tall, handsome officer, spick and span in his light gray uniform, his helmet shining like silver. He came toward us with a pleasant smile, clicked his heels in true military fashion, touched his helmet in salute, and asked my husband if he was "his Excellency." On his reply that he was, the officer then asked if I was "her Excellency." When he learned that we were both ourselves he led the way, pushing people aside to make a passage for us, and we went into the room where the passports were examined. He said that "this had to be done! It could not be avoided." The looking at our passports and the comparing of them with the originals took only a moment. My vanity

suffered a pang when the official, after contemplating the hideous portrayal of me, evidently said to himself, "*This is enough,*" for he did not give me a second glance. We were not obliged to open any of our numerous bags and belongings. Even the enormous bouquet I carried, every flower of which might, for all they knew, have contained some secret missive, passed unexamined. Everything was quickly checked off. The polite officer whose appearance and manner belonged more to the Imperial Schloss in Berlin than in the Custom House in quiet little Warnemünde, put us himself in the train and, bowing, smiling, and saluting, went home to his 5 o'clock coffee, followed by our warmest thanks.

H., (my son,) who is of a friendly nature, hobnobbed with the Mecklenburg warrior who was on duty on the quay. He offered him a cigar, which the soldier pocketed quickly with a whispered "Danke schön." The footing on which they stood must have been very friendly, for the sentinel waved his gun as a parting salute when the train steamed away.

The Swiss gentleman with whom we had traveled, and with whom we had conversed in French and English at our sweet will, said that in the Custom House he had been asked to show all his papers and that he had been felt over and "patted" from his shoulders down; that his pockets had all been "gone through," but everything had been done in the most courteous way, and the searchers had seemed rather to beg his pardon for putting him to so much inconvenience.

The other passengers, however, did not fare even as well as he did, and one (a Russian) did not fare at all. He was retained at Warnemünde, and was to be sent back by the next steamer. I must say that I never saw a more spyish-looking person in my life; I would not have trusted him across the street even in times of peace.

One man had a gold piece in his pocket. It was taken from him, but replaced by paper money of the same value. He had also a note book in his valise, in which he had written his impressions. One was that a "smukke pige" (Danish for pretty

girl) did not mean a smoked pig. These he was obliged to explain in detail. H. helped him, as he did not speak German, being from Argentina.

Our route passed through Mecklenburg-Strelitz. This part of Germany is very familiar to us, as we once spent a delightful Summer there.

We had a most excellent dinner in the dining car, even better than formerly, consisting of a good soup, a very good filet de boeuf, hot potatoes, cheese, and fruit. We were, as you see, far from being starved. We had fared well—better than was dreamed of by those who bade us farewell. The only thing out of the usual that I noticed was that there were fewer men in the stations, almost none in the fields, and not many in the towns as we passed through them. But the railroad service was just as always.

We arrived on the stroke of time in Berlin, and found our former servant (Otto) at the door of our compartment. He had been sent by Count M. to invite us to luncheon the next day. All the automobiles had been taken, and Otto was some time finding two droschkes to convey us and our baggage to the hotel. There were plenty of porters about, and we were *not* obliged to burden ourselves with our bags, as predicted.

We went to the Hotel Bristol, Unter den Linden. How dimly the lighted and dull streets looked! How deserted they were! How quiet this usually so brilliantly lit centre seemed! Hardly a pedestrian and no carriages. I would never have known our old Berlin. The hotel, the rendezvous of all that was chic and fashionable, was filled only with serious elderly men, eagerly reading the newspapers. The head waiter rushed up to us, as if welcoming his dearest friends, (evidently thinking we were American millionaires.) He rubbed his hands and asked us if we would "*sup*," (speaking in English,) beaming with happy anticipation of a princely *bourboire*, and chanced an "I remember you when you were here before." He received a short and to-the-point reply in German to the effect that he was *not* remembered and that, as some one once said, "his face was not as familiar as his manner." A *Brodkarte* (bread

card) was given to us. There were ten coupons on each, and each coupon was good for 25 grams of bread, sufficient for one day—supposed to be all you need. You cannot get more.

When you go to a restaurant you must take your Brodkarte with you, otherwise you go without if you can't borrow one. The bakers provide their clients with just that amount, and no more. Of course, in the hotels it is put on your bill.

Many signs were hung on the walls of the hotel begging people to be economical, not to waste anything. A particular stress was put upon potatoes. They should be boiled with their skins on, and if they were pared the parings must not be thrown away. Why? I wondered.

I went to see my jeweler the next morning. There was hardly any one in the street, (Friedrichstrasse.) It was generally so full of traffic, but now noticeably empty. Occasionally an officer would limp by, leaning on his cane, and another with a loose-hanging sleeve. What a sad tale this told!

Although there were so few people to be seen, all the theatres are open, and, it is said, very well attended. Certainly the restaurants showed no sign of lack of customers. Both hotels and restaurants are filled to overflowing.

I met the Princess Wied in the corridor of the hotel—not the ex-Queen of Albania, but her sister-in-law, (the daughter of the King of Württemberg.) She presented her son to me. He is very young, at least he looked so. He goes to the front tomorrow. She seemed very sad, and looked with loving eyes at the handsome young fellow.

We lunched with Count and Countess M., and met some of the American Embassy, and after lunch Countess M. took me out for a drive in her motor. She has my former chauffeur. It seemed natural to be driving about the old familiar road to Grünwald and by Kaiserdam. My favorite promenade! When we passed the new building devoted to exhibitions and sport, the chauffeur said it was the largest edifice in the world. (I wonder.) The hall alone is 1,200 meters long and 18 meters high. It covers 19,000

meters of ground, and is lighted by 15,000 electric lamps at night; it is lighted "al giorno" from the ceiling and behind glass.

It must be splendid! *Colossal* is the only word to apply to it. My jeweler said that he would be called to do his military service next year.

"Next year!" I cried. "Surely you don't think that the war will go on till then?"

"Why, of course," he answered; "there is no doubt of it."

I hope that he is wrong. It is a dreadful thought that this state of things should continue!

Now our real journey, fraught with dangers and surprises, was to commence. We started from Anhalt Bahnhof the next day. The station was crammed with soldiers. Every train that came in brought them, and every train that went out took them away. The poor young fellows looked hardly over twenty. They carried their bundles on their backs and paper cartons tied with strings. They were going to receive their knapsacks at the end of their journey. . . . And what more! Poor creatures!

They appeared quiet and serious; there was no shouting nor running about, after the manner of soldiers. The Captain marshaled them about with low-spoken words of command. Their uniforms, as those of the officers, were of dark cloth. Their helmets were covered with the same cloth to hide (I suppose) the shininess of them. Our first-class compartment was almost filled with officers, but when we came they politely left us to ourselves and stood in the corridor.

The luncheon and dinner on the restaurant cars were well served, and there was enough of everything for the many passengers. Our bread was given to us in small packages, but we had plenty. The train was crammed with soldiers; they stood in all the corridors. H. gave them some cigarettes and I handed out what chocolate I had taken with me. It was not much, yet they seemed very grateful.

All the factories we passed seemed to be closed; there was no smoke to be seen anywhere. In the fields, which appeared

to be full of Spring promise, one saw none but women. They were sowing grain, and plowing the fields behind the slow and ponderous oxen. We saw them sawing wood and cleaning out stables. Man's work! They replaced their husbands just as the oxen and dogs replaced the horses. Of them only the weak-kneed and blind were left.

In some towns we went through the women were acting as conductors on the tramways.

We passed many camps for prisoners. They were a little way from the railroad, but one saw them very well. One regiment (I think it must have been a regiment) was in French uniforms. They were walking along the high road accompanied by some German soldiers. They seemed to step along briskly as if their lot was not an "unhappy one."

When one thinks that Germany has to provide not only for its own people but for more than 800,000 prisoners, one can truly admire the organization and the resources of the country. I, who was craving an adventure, an emotion, or a thrill of some kind, was disappointed. No plainer sailing or anything more humdrum and emotionless and normal than our journey so far can be imagined!

The only difference I noticed was that women were selling beer and newspapers in the station, which, as a rule, except for the moving of soldiers, was very devoid of excitement. The trains started on the minute and arrived on the minute.

At Stuttgart we walked to the Hotel Marquand, as it is next to the station. This hotel, whose prices are equal to its pretensions, was full; however, we found very good rooms. I think that we were the only strangers, and we seemed to convey the impression that we were the nabobs the waiter in Berlin took us for. The expectant maid, who stayed in the vicinity of my room, certainly was one of those "made in Germany"—she never spoke to me without saying "Gnädige." The other guests, evidently as "heartless" as we, did not mind showing that they had money to spend. I was glad to find other "cruel" people willing to throw away a little of theirs in a country that needed it. The country seemed

very pleased to get the little we threw. The next morning we took the train *en route* for Switzerland, and found on it our Swiss friend Mrs. M. and a German diplomat on his way to Rome. They had traveled all night very comfortably in the sleeping cars from Berlin. The fourth person in their compartment was an elderly lady, who dozed peacefully and who only waked up occasionally to ask whether we had reached the frontier. On hearing that we had not, she moved closer to her corner, to make room for me, and dozed off again. Happily, they were amiable enough to allow us to be there, (we sat squeezed three on a seat,) otherwise we should have been obliged to stay in the corridor and stand on a Landwehr's toes.

No one, apparently, had had any difficulty anywhere. They seemed very comfortable; they had neither frozen nor starved nor waited on side tracks.

The German diplomat must have received special orders from his Government to avoid conversation with the humbler sex, for none of us three ladies could worm a glance from him, even the elderly lady's questions about the *frontière* were snubbed.

But as soon as one of my gentlemen attacked him, he was all smiles and blinkings behind his spectacles, evidently proud of himself that he had repelled the advances and withstood the wiles of *women!* He had in his eyes a sort of "retro Satanical" look.

We had no delay at the Swiss-German Custom House. The Swiss officer opened his eyes when the avalanche of passports was unbosomed and thrust at him, every one of them in a different language and garnished with portraits. We had been told that our photographs must be taken in the *identical* clothes we would wear on the journey, but, womanlike, we had changed our minds as we had our dresses and hats. Therefore, it was very hard for the man to see where the difference was, and, as we had not the time for puzzling over the mystery, he handed the passports back, with a tired but polite sigh.

This was my last hope of an adventure. Nothing had happened, and certainly now

nothing would happen. I looked out of the window at the Schafhausen Cascade, (the place where the beautiful Rhine commences its career before it begins to make wine and grow hops,) and felt somehow as if I had been defrauded unduly of emotions. I had one, nevertheless.

The elderly lady who had shown such anxiety about the frontière whom we thought was Russian, caught sight of my flowers and remarked that they were beautiful, and added: "If you want to keep them you must cut their stems a little every day"; I said I would remember to do so.

The ice being broken, I said: "These carnations are already three days old. I can't expect to keep them forever."

"From what country did you say they came?" I had not mentioned any country! Nevertheless I told her. "I am from Sweden," she said. The ice by this time had become thin enough to walk on. She talked rapidly and in Swedish. "Do you know Mrs. —?" and spoke my name. I nodded my head. "Have you read —?" and mentioned my book. I murmured something, trembling to hear a verdict. "Oh! how I should like to know her!" she said.

"You have not far to go, Madame," I said; "you are talking to her now," and pointed to the third button of my blouse.

"Nae," she cried, "Nae, I cannot believe it," and gasped for breath. I think, also, that it must have been hard for her to believe that the lady she wanted so much to know was the tired and travel-stained lady before her.

"I have not your book with me. It is too precious, [perhaps it was too heavy.] I own two. I keep one in my salon and the other on my nightstand; I read a chapter every night."

Like the Bible, thought I, or could she mean that it was to invite slumber? In any case I was overwhelmed. . . .

What pleased this enthusiastic lady the most was that she had praised the book before she knew who I was. I took some flowers from my bouquet and gave them to her; I could not do less, could I? She pressed them to her lips, and begged me for my autograph. I never was so flattened in all my life.

We stayed that night in Zurich. It was very cold, and we decided to push on to Locarno. Before we left the hotel the next morning I received a twenty-five-word-long telegram from the Swedish lady repeating in a condensed form her effusions of the day before.

It was a dark and cold day, but when we came out of the long tunnel of St. Gotthard the sun burst forth in a blaze of glory.

Reindeer for Berlin

Ten thousand living reindeer are to be imported from Norway in order to be slaughtered for consumption in Berlin. The *Allgemeine Fleischer Zeitung*, the leading organ of the German meat trade, which makes this announcement in a late June number, states that one reindeer has already been imported and slaughtered. It had, however, suffered somewhat during the long railway journey, and it is believed that better provision can be made for the transport of large consignments than was possible in the case of a single animal.

Russia's German Bureaucrats

By Jean Finot

FROM the outset of the war Russian "barbarism" and "savagery" have been much harped upon by the Germans. In this way they wished to influence the neutrals, even the Allies themselves. The "Cossacks" became the incarnation of the cruelties and inhumanity of earlier wars; they represented pillage, robbery, violation, incendiarism, destruction of property, murder of non-combatants.

Intellectuals in various countries allowed themselves to be caught in this clumsy trap set by German diplomacy with the aid of German savants, newspapers, agents, and spies.

Reality soon tore the mask from these lies. Compared with the semi-civilized Germans, the Cossacks have proved to be angels of sweetness and mercy. The illusion of Russian savagery has been swept away. The Germans themselves, for the purposes of their cause, now find more interest in turning about and denouncing the criminal egoism of the English.

But it is not without interest to take up again the psychology of the Russian people as it is understood in the Old and New Worlds. The Europe of tomorrow must become better acquainted with the elements that must work together in creating it.

First, one must draw a distinction between the Russian people and its rulers. The formation of the Russian Nation makes it impossible to identify these with each other. The Romanoff dynasty has tried for many years to become identified with the needs and aspirations of the people; now, at last, everything leads to the belief that it has succeeded.

The nobility of the three Baltic provinces, entirely Germans, in whom are rooted the worst instincts of the Prussian Junkers, had until the war a dominant influence on the evolution of Russian destinies. Military leaders, statesmen, the

highest office holders, were recruited principally from the Junkers of Courland, Livonia, and Estonia. Always intriguing with Prussia, toward whom they were attracted by similarity of tastes and aspirations, they can be considered only superficially Russians. Were it not for the immense extent of the empire and the resistance of the real Russians, this little selected body, working without restraint, would have drowned the Russian soul in the German ocean.

The Franco-Russian alliance was confronted for years with insurmountable obstacles. The iron will of an Alexander II., of a Nicholas II., was needed to make headway against the petty intrigues of the Baltic nobility, backed by the Hohenzollerns. But what contributed most efficaciously to awakening the Russian Court and to exasperating the national sentiment was the unskillful conduct of the Kaiser and of his diplomats, who looked upon Russia as a conquered province.

Pan-Slavism, and the orthodox religion, so radically opposed to Germanic tendencies, also helped to save the empire of the Czars. The present war will be, for Russia, a war of permanent deliverance. The mountain of crimes erected between the two nations will make the resurrection of the past impossible.

Nevertheless, German influence has not had its last word. While Russia is fighting her "holy war," numerous German emissaries paralyze her life and seriously compromise her repute. The far-reaching words of the Czar offer peace and kindly tolerance to his subjects, but at the same time agents from Berlin are doing their best to foment trouble which threatens to discredit the decrees and promises of Nicholas II.

Scattered through the Russian Empire, the Germans have always sought to make trouble among its constituent elements. High German officials are almost always responsible for Russian blunders; they

keep up their policy of fomenting dissension in order to weaken the empire. Disguised as true Russians, nay, as ultra-Russians, they support the newspapers of the "Black Band," in which France and England are slandered and Germany praised. Even while the heroic Russian Army is shedding its blood in the cause of the future of humanity, newspapers in the pay of Germany are plunged in grief because the land of Czars is arrayed against the Kaiser, who is represented as the good genius of the dynasty, of reaction and of orthodoxy.

Foreigners ignorant of this complexity in Russian life tend to confuse the two sides of the medal. It is necessary to turn away from the hideous and criminal "Black Band," which continually imperils the noble Slavic soul, and look only upon the real Russian Nation, its writers, savants, and philosophers, who alone reflect its worth.

It is in the words of Tolstoy, Dostoevsky, Turgenieff, Gorky, Tchekoff, Korolenko, and so many other poets or novelists; in Solovieff, the great psychologist of Russian religious feeling; in Borodine, Pavloff, Mendeleyeff, Metchnikoff, in the brilliant galaxy of sociologists, publicists, and historians, that one finds the ability and worth of the Muscovite nation. Its intellectual forces, compared with those of present-day Germany, would bear away the palm both as to number and intrinsic value. In studying the Russian people as depicted by a Tolstoy one perceives their profound morality. I have had occasion to bear witness to this in a series of studies of modern saints and inspired writers. All that impresses us in the superhuman morality of a Tolstoy, whose nobility of soul is sometimes inconceivable to other European countries, is in reality nothing more than the reflection of the life of the ordinary Russian mujik. Among people divided against each other in hundreds of sects we find the greatest of evangelical truths formulated with touching simplicity. Centuries of misery and sadness have purified and ennobled the popular conscience to a remarkable degree.

Meditating upon the sorrows of this world, a poor Russian peasant often ex-

presses thoughts worthy of a Seneca or a Spinoza. But alcoholism, that formidable enemy, and the far too great misery caused by exploitation at the hands of the State through centuries have at last robbed true Russian genius of its character.

The prohibition of the sale of alcohol just promulgated by the Czar will save and radically transform the lower classes, who exceed 150,000,000 in number. Under the régime of enforced temperance Russia will present an unexpected spectacle to the human race of tomorrow. Within twenty years people will understand of what prodigies a nation will be capable which has not succumbed under the ravages to which from time immemorial its moral and material life was exposed.

II.—GERMAN DIPLOMACY AND THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

Above all, one must visualize the developments of tomorrow. My sincerity as to moral and political Russia, as to its Government and people, has become strengthened on a number of occasions. For a long time I stood almost alone in protesting against various aberrations of those at the helm in Russia, which were followed by acts harmful to the nation.

We know now that the unfortunate Japanese war turned Russian evolution from its natural course. The historian of the future will discover among the principal reasons for this the hidden influence of Germany. In order to weaken Russia in Europe, Germany drove her to dangerous ventures in the Far East. This seemed to me so clear that I have continually called attention to it in these very pages.

The Russo-Japanese war nearly ruined the Russian Empire and nearly prevented it from fulfilling its obligations toward France. It was evident that if war could be stopped, an alliance of the two belligerents, which had become necessary, would quickly make good the damage done.

In this opinion I stood almost alone; by some, in fact, it was declared paradoxical and harmful. And when high finance, anxious first of all for its profits,

decided to negotiate a loan of 1,000,000,-000 francs for Russia, I braved the impossible to halt this financial move, as disastrous to the Franco-Russian Alliance as to the whole human race. The loan was already signed at St. Petersburg; nevertheless, the impossible succeeded.

An article of mine entitled "How to Save Our Milliards" signed "a friend of the alliance"—for I had never given up believing in its necessity and advantages—produced a tempest in legislative circles.

In that article I tried to demonstrate that, if the war continued, Russia would find it impossible to pay the interest on her loans, and that a catastrophe of this nature would bring about the ruin of French investors and the final fall of the third republic.

M. Rouvier, Minister of Finance at that time, asked me to stop my campaign, which he considered unpatriotic. Nevertheless, being a man of high intelligence, he became convinced, after a long conversation to which he summoned me, that the real interests of France required, before all else, the immediate termination of the war.

Besides, Japan rightly thought that this impending loan was an act of hostile intervention harmful to her interests. Baron Motono, the eminent Japanese Ambassador, said to me: "As France is such a tried friend of our country and of Russia, and as she is not able to send her armies to the Far East, she should not send her money there. After the war, Indo-China might sooner or later pay the cost of this intervention, even contrary to the wishes of the friends of France."

Furthermore, the Franco-Japanese rapprochement, foreshadowed in *La Revue* during the war (in 1905) by my eminent friend, Viscount Suyematsu, son-in-law of Marquis Ito, came true as soon as the war was over, and it is the reason why France, Russia, and Japan stand together today on the same side of the barricade.

Thus our perspicacity was justified. It sufficed to look at reality without prejudices to see that the Russo-Japanese

war was one of the most illogical in history. The perfect good faith with which both nations have since accepted peace proves the sincerity of their humanitarian aspirations.

One thing must never be lost sight of—left to itself, the Russian people is essentially peaceful. The idea of conquest is foreign to it; schemes of territorial aggrandizement have always been inculcated into it by those in high position or by foreign influences. The only wars that are popular in Russia are those whose object is the deliverance of Slavic peoples. In 1879, when it was a case of freeing the Balkan peoples, the enthusiasm of the Russians knew no bounds. But in 1905 they were opposed to a campaign which they considered monstrous and inconceivable. And now they are filled again with enthusiasm for the great crusade of civilized peoples whose goal is to free Russia from German influence and to preserve not only the Slavic principle but the political rights and moral acquisitions of Europe.

So this nation, looked upon as barbarous and savage, has waged several wars for an ideal! It will suffice to compare it to the German Nation, which has never helped any people and never fought for a lofty principle, in order to understand on which side moral supremacy lies.

III.—THE PARADOX OF A MONGOL PEOPLE.

Russia is taxed with being a Mongol or Tartar nation. A victim of the barbarians, she has needed centuries to emancipate herself from their influence and become Christian and moral. Germany, in her past, has had no such tragic event to deplore. Therefore she is today committing a crime that is all the more monstrous because she is separating herself from the civilized and falling voluntarily into sheer savagery.

It will suffice to study the main currents of Russian thought during the last half century to realize how much her "idealists" remain superior to the German "intellectuals." Ever since the Russians of 1840, whom Herzen describes with so much talent in his "Byloie i

Doumy," ever since Granovsky, Pisemsky, Stankevitch, since Slavophiles like Kirevsky, Khomiakoff, Aksakoff, a breath of great humanitarian principles has animated Muscovite literature and life. How many reforms have been introduced since 1860—the emancipation of the serfs, judiciary reform, the organization of municipal and provincial autonomy! The germ of a free Parliament like the present one gives promise of a brilliant future for the Russian Empire. Russia will become a great free and civilized nation on the day that she succeeds in ridding herself once and for all of the harmful influence of the Germans, who have ceaselessly paralyzed her life and aspiration.

IV.—REAL RUSSIAN ASPIRATIONS.

Russian psychologists boast rightly of Russia's innate aspirations toward liberty and justice. Alexander Herzen calls the autocratic power of the Czar essentially German. "Perfect concord reigned formerly between non-believers and Catholic Slavs in Russia," declares the great publicist, Gradovsky. "Jews, Moslems, and Christians lived together in perfect harmony there."

The subjugation of the people, who become in the course of centuries veritable slaves, originated in the invasion of the Tartars. Peter the Great, instead of Europeanizing Russia, simply Germanized it. He tried to graft upon it the formal and external sides of German civilization. Thanks to his successors, the only thing Russian about whom was their title, the Germans settled in Russia as if it were a conquered land.

Nevertheless, for the last fifty years one may note intermittent tendencies on the part of the Czars to free themselves from German influence. Often they encountered insurmountable difficulties. In the wake of German Princes and Princesses, a train of favorites and courtiers always flowed into Russia, creating rich and influential families, always opposed to the principles dear to genuine Russians. When one adds to these the German families of the Baltic Provinces it is easy to understand that this internecine struggle had necessarily to last for some decades more.

The German families who have succeeded in throwing off the Prussian influence are very few. So unfortunate an imprint has Prussia left on the life of the empire that all farseeing patriots never tire of deplored it. On this subject great Generals and statesmen educated away from German influence are unanimous. Here Tolstoy clasps hands with General Skobelev, the revolutionary writer Herzen agrees with Aksakov or Soloviev, both so closely bound to tradition. Let us recall the words uttered by Skobelev in 1882: "We Russians, when we are at home, are not in Russia."

V.—RUSSIANS DO NOT TRUST THE GERMANS.

Recent happenings simply throw a tragic light on the statements of Russian patriots. The generous intentions of Czar Nicholas II. seem very sincere.

But the bureaucrats find the way to reduce his projects to nothing; they continue to persecute the Poles and their language. They have even gone so far as to send Russian prelates into Galicia! They are organizing Jewish pogroms and deporting to Siberia the most beloved of Finnish representatives. These are crimes of *lèse-majesté* committed by the very men who should be the most faithful servants of the Czar.

What is the purpose of these vexatious measures if not to compromise Russia in the eyes of her allies and alienate from her the sympathies of neutral countries? Sweden having shown hostility toward Russia on account of Finland, the result of such measures has been to alarm her once again.

In Russia there are at present more than 250,000 Jewish soldiers whose courage and devotion to their country are proved by the official communiqués. But the bureaucrats have been able to drive the Jewish wounded from certain places on the pretext that "they have not the right to live there!" Moreover, by organizing pogroms at the moment when the sacred union of the nation is at its zenith, they seek to destroy the harmony between Russian citizens and foment civil war.

Russia will need many millions for her economic and financial reconstruction;

no matter what happens, she cannot dispense with the aid of international finance. Already the enmity of the great Jewish bankers is being aroused against her; those in the United States have shown their violent hostility to "Russian barbarism" as a result of the pogroms.

The Poles are giving proof of super-human courage and devotion. Despite the devastation of their provinces and the destitution which is ravaging their lands, they are sacrificing everything, their life and their last belongings, for the profit of Russia and her allies. And the Russian bureaucrats choose this opportunity for exasperating Polish susceptibility and robbing the Poles of all faith in the Czar's promises!

The Bourtseff case is most significant. This veteran revolutionist, who won so much sympathy while staying in Paris and London, relinquished his aims at the outbreak of hostilities and returned to Russia to preach national union even under the banner of autocracy. Before departing he proclaimed the necessity for all advanced parties to rally around the Czar and his Government in order to fight the common enemy. Trusting to the generosity of his sovereign and to the sacred union of the Russian people, he crossed the frontier. He was arrested. Then the Court of Assizes, which sentences without a jury, found a way to condemn him to deportation for life.

The French and English Governments, which have succeeded in arousing the same patriotic enthusiasm in Socialists, pacifists, and revolutionists, are now inundated by the claims and protests of friends of liberty. It would be hard to admit that we have to do here only with conscienceless or stupid officials. How so? Can one believe that they do not understand the importance of the events developing about them nor the moral value and humanitarian tendencies of the nations taking part therein? Rather should we see in such acts a continuation of that German influence which is exerted in Russia against the interests of the people and the formal will of the sovereign.

It would be unbelievable that the Czar should instigate a world war in order to

deliver little Serbia and refuse to save his own people! It is useless, says Epicetus, to desire to kill tigers and lions in distant lands if we cannot rid ourselves of the wild beasts in ourselves.

But our limited enthusiasm for the Muscovite Government does not keep us from professing unlimited faith in the Russian people. In the gigantic battle against barbarism Russia will win her own salvation—liberty for herself and deliverance for all time from Prussia and the Prussians.

VI.—RUSSIAN REACTION AS A COUNTER-BLOW TO GERMAN MILITARISM.

We must not forget that after the great convulsion produced by the war with Japan Russia clearly wished to rest her political organization on new foundations. The creation of the Duma was followed by the law of April 17, 1907, which gave religious liberty to the country. Had she continued on this road, Russia might have changed her autocratic régime into a liberal monarchy which would have brought her boundless prosperity and constitutional liberties to her inhabitants.

It is well known how greatly the interview of Czar Nicholas with the Kaiser at Cronstadt in 1907 transformed the Russian policy. Under the baleful influences of the Berlin crank, the Duma miscarried and the famous "law of tolerance" of 1907 became a dead letter.

The peaceful evolution of Russian liberty came to an abrupt stop. Popular discontent, apparently stamped out, was bound to burst forth sooner or later in the form of a revolution which the Russian liberals awaited as a deliverance and which the conservatives feared as the last judgment.

The war put an end to this painful agony of a prostrated ideal.

Victory by the Allies will bring to the vast empire of the Czars that national reconciliation so ardently desired, which will develop into a perfect accord between the ruler and his people.

The Czar and the Grand Duke Nicholas doubtless do not know just now what has become of their magnanimous prom-

ises. But let us not be deceived; the day is near when those who have committed crimes against the security of Russia will be severely punished. The Germans, who wish above all else to make Russia distrusted and hateful to the Allies, to neutrals, and to international finance, are now in their death-agony. They feel sure that they can easily destroy Russian credit during the war and prevent its restoration in future.

The Chancelleries of Paris and London should draw the attention of the Russian Government to the crimes committed in its name. They seem to be escaping the notice of the immediate entourage of the Czar and the great and honorable man who now directs Russian foreign policy. The unfortunate victims of these harmful measures and of the misdeeds already committed know doubtless whence they come.

Poles, Jews, Finns, and Armenians should feel convinced that their martyrdom will cease when normal life is resumed and Germany decisively defeated. Official Russia will be unable to elude the fulfillment of her obligations without incurring the risk of taking Germany's place in the estimation of other nations.

The Czar's energetic attitude precludes all doubt as to the worth of his promises, and the victims of the Russian bureaucrats and of German machinations should spurn the seditious advice given them by those who have always been their enemies.

Russia's basic interests will oblige her to develop more and more along liberal lines. Her empire, which has become one of the greatest ever known in history, will require for its existence the "Roman Peace" in the highest sense of the phrase,

and the only way to build up this peace will be by winning the respect of the peoples forming the empire. Only at that price can Russia maintain the unity of her provinces and assure peace at home.

Joined once more with France, England, and all other civilized countries, Russia will guarantee a worthy and happy existence to the two hundred millions of inhabitants whom she will possess before long. Ennobled and purified by this tremendous war, which she has undertaken for an ideal, Russia will work with other civilized countries for an evolution of the Europe of tomorrow, which will be based more than ever before on justice.

The discord which seemed to alienate the Czar and his people, a discord zealously fomented by the Hohenzollerns, will likewise vanish in time, and the union between Czardom and the Russians, consolidated and sealed by the sacrifices suffered with so much heroism by the entire nation, will forge indissoluble bonds between them.

Never have the Hohenzollerns ceased to work against Russian liberty; a constitutional Russia was to them a perpetual menace to Prussian autocracy. The Kaiser, moreover, could not continue with impunity his assaults on the German Constitution except by keeping at fever heat the German hatred for a despotic and barbarous Russia. Being unable to arm against France with any show of decency, he armed against a Russia branded as "Cossack" and savage.

Ties of friendship and family having been broken once for all between Romanoffs and Hohenzollerns, Russia will be able to follow her national aspirations untrammelled and win the brilliant future to which she is destined.



To the French Soldiers at the Front

By Anatole France

The subjoined article by M. Anatole France celebrating the festival of the 14th of July appeared originally in the *Petit Parisien*, and is translated by Winifred Stevens, editor of "The Book of France."

DEAR soldiers, heroic children of the Fatherland, today is your festival, for it is the festival of France. The 14th of July breaks in a dawn of blood and glory. We celebrate and we honor your brethren fallen in immortal battles, and you, to whom we send our good wishes, with this heartfelt cry: Live! Triumph!

One hundred and twenty-six years ago today the people of Paris, armed with pikes and guns, to the beating of drums and the ringing of the tocsin, pressed in a long line down the Faubourg Saint-Antoine, attacked the Bastile, and, after five hours' conflict beneath deadly fire, took possession of the hated fortress. A symbolical victory won over tyranny and despotism, a victory by which the French people inaugurated a new régime.

The sovereignty of law! Therein lies the significance of the Bastile taken by the people and razed to its foundations. The coming of justice! For that reason patriots wearing the tricolor cockade in their hats, and citizenesses in frocks striped with the nation's colors, danced all night long to the accompaniment of violins, in the gay brilliance of the illuminations, on the leveled site of the Bastile.

Hour of confidence in human goodness, of faith in a future of concord and of peace! Then did France reveal her true place among men; then did she show with what hopes the Revolution swelled the hearts of Europe. The fall of the Bastile resounded throughout the whole world.

To Russia the good tidings came like the bright flame of a bonfire on some day of public rejoicing. In the proud city of Peter and of Catherine nobles and serfs, with tears and cries of gladness, embraced one another on the public squares. The French Ambassador at the

Court of the Empress bears witness to this rapture. "It is impossible," he writes, "to describe the enthusiasm excited among tradesmen, merchants, citizens, and the young men of the upper classes by this fall of a State prison, and this first triumph of tempestuous liberty—French, Russians, Danes, Germans, Dutchmen were all congratulating and embracing one another in the streets as if they had been liberated from some onerous bondage."

In England workingmen, the middle classes, and the generous minded among the aristocracy all rejoiced over the victory of right won by the people of Paris. Neither did their enthusiasm flag, despite all the efforts of a Government strenuously hostile to the new principles of France. In 1790, the anniversary of the taking of the Bastile was celebrated in London by an immense banquet, presided over by Lord Stanhope, one of the wisest statesmen of the United Kingdom.

These are the memories we recall and the events we celebrate today.

Dear soldiers, dear fellow-citizens, I address you on this grave festival because I love you and honor you and think of you unceasingly.

I am entitled to speak to you heart to heart because I have a right to speak for France, being one of those who have ever sought, in freedom of judgment and uprightness of conscience, the best means of making their country strong. I am entitled to speak to you because, not having desired war, but being compelled to suffer it, I, like you, like all Frenchmen, am resolved to wage it till the end, until justice shall have conquered iniquity, civilization barbarism, and the nations are delivered from the monstrous menace of an oppressive militarism. I have a right to speak to you because I am one of the few who have never de-

ceived you, and who have never believed that you needed lies for the maintenance of your courage; one of the few who, rejecting as unworthy of you deceptive fictions and misleading silence, have told you the truth.

I told you in December last year: "This war will be cruel and long." I tell you now: "You have done much, but all is not over. The end of your labors approaches, but is not yet. You are fighting against an enemy fortified by long preparation and immense material. Your foe is unscrupulous. He has learned from his leaders that inhumanity is the soldier's first virtue. Arming himself in a manner undreamed of hitherto by the most formidable of conquerors, he causes rivers of blood to flow and breathes forth vapors charged with torpor and with death. Endure, persevere, dare. Remain what you are, and none shall prevail against you.

You are fighting for your native land, that laughing, fertile land, the most beautiful in the world; for your fields and your meadows. For the august mother, who, crowned with vine leaves and with ears of corn, waits to welcome you and to feed you with all the inexhaustible treasures of her breast. You are fighting for your village belfry, your roofs of slate or tile, with wreaths of smoke curling up into the serene sky. For your fathers' graves, your children's cradles.

You are fighting for our august cities, on the banks of whose rivers rise the monuments of generations—romanesque churches, cathedrals, minsters, abbeys, palaces, triumphal arches, columns of bronze, theatres, museums, town halls,

hospitals, statues of sages and of heroes—whose walls, whether modest or magnificent, shelter alike commerce, industry, science, and the arts, all that constitutes the beauty of life.

You are fighting for our moral heritage, our manners, our uses, our laws, our customs, our beliefs, our traditions. For the works of our sculptors, our architects, our painters, our engravers, our goldsmiths, our enameler, our glass cutters, our weavers. For the songs of our musicians. For our mother tongue which, with ineffable sweetness, for eight centuries has flowed from the lips of our poets, our orators, our historians, our philosophers. For the knowledge of man and of nature. For that encyclopedic learning which attained among us the high-water mark of precision and lucidity. You are fighting for the genius of France, which enlightened the world and gave freedom to the nations. By this noble spirit bastiles are overthrown. And, lastly, you are fighting for the homes of Belgians, English, Russians, Italians, Serbians, not for France merely, but for Europe, ceaselessly disturbed and furiously threatened by Germany's devouring ambition.

* * * * *

The Fatherland! Liberty! Beloved children of France, these are the sacred treasures committed to your keeping; for their sakes you endure without complaint prolonged fatigue and constant danger; for their sakes you will conquer.

And you, women, children, old men, strew with flowers and foliage all the roads of France; our soldiers will return triumphant. ANATOLE FRANCE.

A Farewell

[From The Washington Gazette.]

Though we laugh at little things,
As in days by laughter blest,
The great actual phantom flings
Now a shadow on the jest.

Welcome nonsense, rendering sane
We who go and we who wait;
For the loosing of the strain
Sense is too inadequate.

D. S.

Then it was mirth's overflow
Seeking from itself relief.
Now we laugh because we know
We are all besieged by grief.

The Spirit of France

By Emile Boutroux

The subjoined article by M. Boutroux, who is a member of the French Academy, appeared originally in The London Daily News as an authorized translation by Fred Rothwell.

IHAVE been asked to say what I think as to the spirit in which my country is passing through this terrible war. Clearly, in such times as these words are of little importance; it is deeds that are the real arguments. And it is advisable that we judge France by her conduct in the immediate past and in the present. If we would be faithful disciples of Descartes, we must make no attempt whatsoever to court the good opinion of the world by skillful evasion, for we recognize that all men have the right—which we claim for ourselves—to bend the knee to truth alone.

There is one principle which it is important to follow: We must not allow trifling facts, or presumptions, or reasonings of any kind, however subtle, to take the place of important facts which are manifestly self-evident. The text must not be buried beneath a mass of commentaries.

For instance, consider the attitude of France previous to the war. When did this one of the great powers depart from her pacific and conciliatory attitude? What did she do of a nature to render her responsible, in the slightest degree, for the war forced upon her?

We have often read that France wanted war because she wanted her "revenge." The accusation comes strangely, indeed, from the mouths of those who, even in these days, are crying for vengeance on Quintilius Varus and on Mélac; and who, from the time of the battle of Leipsic, have never ceased singing, "Wir wollen Rache haben." Besides, it is devoid of foundation. As regards Alsace and Lorraine, it is anything but "revenge" that the French claim; the affected use of the word in this connection is pure sophistry, intended to delude people. The facts are very simple and

speak for themselves. In 1871 the representatives of Alsace and Lorraine said to France: "Your brothers in these two provinces, who for the time being are separated from the one common family, will ever retain a filial affection for absent France, until she comes to win back her former place." The Alsatians and the Lorrainers, before being French, had indeed a home, "Heimat," as they say in German, but they had never had a country of their own, a "Vaterland." France is the first and only fatherland they have ever known. They have remained faithful to France, and she has proved herself faithful to them.

Since 1789, moreover, the very function or the signification of France throughout the world has been the affirmation of the right, which belongs to nations, great or small, to dispose of themselves as they please. "Damals," said Goethe, when declaring the good news which the Frenchmen of 1792 had brought, "damals hoffte jeder such selbst zu leben," (at that time every man hoped to live his own life.) He added that this thought was the loftiest that man could conceive: "das höchste was der Mensch sich denkt."

It is such a motive that an attempt is being made to ridicule by calling it a "desire for revenge."

But then, some people say, to uphold the principle of nationalities was to wish for war, since the conquerors, in the name of the right of conquest, the only one they acknowledge, as also by reason of their might, which they had rendered formidable, stated that they were determined to keep their prey.

France did not look upon the right of force as the only one to be recognized by modern nations. She relied on the Alsace-Lorraine question, along with other similar questions, being brought, sooner or

later, before an international tribunal, and on the differences between men being settled by justice, some day, in a society which claimed to attach value to Greek culture and the Christian religion. And she set to work to develop ideas of justice and humanity, both in France herself and in other nations.

It is the same principle which they took upon themselves to defend by pacific measures, that the French are now upholding and defending, arms in hand.

They did not consider the question whether it would have been better for them to put up with the tutelage of their powerful neighbors, for, by adopting such an attitude, they would have lost their honor. Given the way in which their adversaries stirred up and waged this war, the French are conscious that they have undertaken the defense, not only of the rights of man in general, but also of the right of nations to independence, dignity, and the untrammeled development of their own distinctive genius. And this consciousness is awakening within them the zeal and ardor they showed in 1792, while a calm appreciation of the conditions of the present struggle inspires in them such a degree of constancy and patience as no difficulties, however great, will be able to crush.

We are not now dealing with something akin to the generous, though rash and unsteady, outbursts of passion often attributed to the French of former days. Our determination now is that we will be resolute and immovable, just as right and truth are immovable and invincible. In this connection, may I mention the letters daily sent to me from the front by the young men, intrusted to my charge, in normal times? They show that the writers are brimming over with enthusiasm, determination, and good humor. With shells bursting all around, they tell me what they are doing and relate their impressions with the same lucidity and mental calm they showed when studying with me. One feels that it is real happiness for them to fight in a cause indisputably noble and just, and that they are sure this same feeling, dominant in all hearts, both in civil life and in the army, will give France the perseverance and energy needed to carry on the war to the end.

Yes, indeed, France is still a youthful and enthusiastic nation fighting for an ideal. Henceforth, however, she will be as deliberate and thoughtful as she has always been full of zeal and ardor. As one of her proverbs says, by helping herself, indefatigably and with all her might, she calls down the help of heaven.

Current Small Talk

By ELLA A. FANNING.

When I am out in company,
I'm careful what I say,
If venturing to make remarks
On topics of the day.

My friends excite my wonder, awe,
As glibly they converse,
And brashly mention Langenfeldkopf,
Travenanzes—or worse!

They praise Duke Nicolaivitch,
And never fail to lug
Into their chat some references to
That place they call "The Bug!"

I sit in silence, must seem dull,
When "Ammertzyviller" they say.
Quote General Yanovskevitch,
In their familiar way.

The war they settle out of hand;
Of Krasnostav they talk,
And Sedd-el-Bahr, and Ossowiec,
As though they said "New York."

Britain's Tribute to Italy

By British Men of Distinction

Anthony Hope Hawkins has published in the British press the letter which appears below, addressed to the Italian Nation and signed, on the invitation of Lord Bryce, Lord Balfour of Burleigh, Lord Reay, Sir George Trevelyan, and Robert Henry Benson, by more than a hundred and fifty people of distinction and authority in Great Britain.

THE LETTER.

WE, whose signatures are here appended, desire to place on record our admiration and respect for the conduct of Italy at this supreme crisis in the history of the world.

Italy and Great Britain are now companions in arms, fighting side by side for the triumph of the same cause. Circumstances drew our own country into the conflict from the beginning, while the ghastliness and the magnitude of the task before us were still only dimly manifest. Yet none of us will forget the crisis of decision through which we passed in the first days of August, 1914.

Italy has had a still harder path to tread. Immediate action was not her part, and she had to bear the strain of nine months' suspense before her hour of decision arrived. During these nine months she saw all the established regulations and mitigations of warfare swept away by the enemy's systematic and cold-blooded resort to methods of a cruelty to noncombatants unprecedented in modern history.

Yet, in spite, or rather because, of all which she knew she would have to face in a conflict with the Germanic powers, Italy nerved herself to the ordeal, resolved to do her utmost toward securing that such horrors as Belgium saw, and as the ocean has seen, should never again threaten the civilized world.

She made her decision at a moment when the prospects of early victory seemed remote, and only the arduousness and the imperative necessity of the task were apparent, and she had to reach this decision through a series of the most complex diplomatic negotiations, which demanded the coolest judgment and most perfect mutual confidence from both Government and people.

At last the suspense is over. Since May 20, 1915, Italy stands in arms at our side; and we feel that an expression of this comradeship on the part of a few among her British friends—we say a few, because every one in these islands is Italy's friend—would be both welcome to her and congenial to ourselves.

The Italian people is at war to liberate its own brethren from an old oppression, and to avert from the whole of Europe the threat of a new military domination. Italy has staked all that she has for the same principles of nationality, humanity, and public right that inspire our own endeavors in this war. We hope with all the earnestness in our hearts that her national aspirations will now be consummated, and we wish the heroic Italy of 1915 to know from our own lips that we feel toward her as our fathers felt toward the heroic Italy of the Risorgimento.

THE SIGNATORIES.

The letter is signed by:

Archbishop of Canterbury	W. H. Bowater, Lord Mayor of Birmingham.
Sir T. Clifford Allbut, Cambridge University.	A. C. Bradley, Glasgow University.
William Archer, Lord Balfour of Burleigh, St. Andrews University.	Robert Bridges, Poet Laureate.
Sir C. B. Hall, Bart., Dublin University.	Viscount Bryce.
H. Granville Barker.	John Burnet, St. Andrews University.
Sir Thomas Barlow.	J. B. Bury, Cambridge University.
Sir J. M. Barrie.	Hall Caine.
J. E. Bedford, Lord Mayor of Leeds.	R. C. Carton.
A. C. Benson.	C. Haddon Chambers.
E. F. Benson.	Rev. R. H. Charles, Canon of Westminster.
R. H. Benson.	G. K. Chesterton.
Laurence Binyon.	Sir W. Watson Cheyne.
Bernard Bosanquet, St. Andrews University.	Albert C. Clark, Oxford University.
Helen Bosanquet.	A. Clutton-Brock.

Sir Sidney Colvin.
 Sir E. T. Cook.
 William Leonard Courtney.
 Sir James Crichton-Browne.
 The Earl of Cromer.
 Lord d'Abernon.
 Sir Samuel Dill, Queen's University, Belfast.
 Sir Arthur Conan Doyle.
 Thomas Dunlop, Lord Provost of Glasgow.
 Sir Frank W. Dyson, Astronomer-Royal.
 Sir Edward Elgar.
 Earl of Elgin.
 C. H. Firth, Oxford University.
 H. A. L. Fisher, Sheffield University.
 John Fitzgerald, Lord Mayor of Newcastle.
 Sir George Frampton.
 Sir J. G. Frazer, Liverpool University.
 Douglas W. Freshfield.
 John Galsworthy.
 Percy Gardner, Oxford University.
 Sir Archibald Geikie.
 W. M. Geldart, Oxford University.
 J. G. Gordon-Munn, Lord Mayor of Norwich.
 B. P. Grenfell, Oxford University.
 Anstey Guthrie, (F. Anstey.)
 Sir H. Rider Haggard.
 Viscount Haldane.
 J. S. Haldane, Oxford University.
 Earl of Halsbury.
 Thomas Hardy.
 J. H. Hargreaves, Lord Mayor of Hull.
 Frederic Harrison.
 F. J. Haverfield, Oxford University.
 Anthony H. Hawkins, (Anthony Hope.)

Sir W. P. Herringham, London University.
 J. P. Heseltine.
 Maurice Hewlett.
 Robert Hichens.
 E. W. Hobson, Cambridge University.
 The Rev. Henry Scott Holland, Oxford University.
 Sir Charles Holroyd.
 Sir Henry Howorth.
 A. S. Hunt, Oxford University.
 Sir Courtenay Ilbert.
 Henry Jackson, Cambridge University.
 Jerome K. Jerome.
 F. B. Jevons, Durham University.
 Sir Charles Johnston, Lord Mayor of London.
 Sir Frederic G. Kenyon.
 W. P. Ker, London University.
 Rudyard Kipling.
 Walter Leaf.
 Sir Sidney Lee.
 Sir John Dillwyn Llewelyn.
 W. J. Locke.
 The Bishop of London.
 Sir Oliver Lodge.
 E. V. Lucas.
 Daniel McCabe, Lord Mayor of Manchester.
 Rev. Alex. R. MacEwen.
 J. W. Mackail, Oxford University.
 Rev. John Pentland Mahaffy, Trinity College, Dublin.
 D. S. Margollioth, Oxford University.
 John Masefield.
 Claude G. Montefiore.
 Lord Moulton.
 Gilbert Murray, Oxford University.
 John L. Myres, Oxford University.
 Sir Henry Newboldt.
 C. W. C. Oman, Oxford University.

H. O'Shea, Lord Mayor of Cork.
 Sir William Osler, Oxford University.
 Barry Pain.
 Sir Gilbert Parker.
 Sir Walter Parratt, Oxford University.
 Sir Hubert Parry, Royal College of Music.
 Rev. David Paul, Moderator, Church of Scotland.
 William Hy. Perkin, Oxford University.
 W. M. Flinders Petrie, London University.
 Eden Phillpotts.
 Sir Arthur Pinero.
 Earl of Plymouth.
 A. F. Pollard, London University.
 Sir Frederick Pollock, Oxford University.
 Edward B. Poulton, Oxford University.
 Sir Edward J. Poynter, Royal Academy of Arts, London.
 Sir Walter Raleigh, Oxford University.
 Sir William Ramsay.
 Sir W. M. Ramsay.
 Lord Rayleigh.
 J. E. Rayner, Lord Mayor of Liverpool.
 Lord Reay.
 Lord Redesdale.
 Rev. George Reith, ex-Moderator U. F. Church of Scotland.
 Sir John Rhys, Oxford University.
 J. T. Richards, Lord Mayor of Cardiff.
 Sir W. B. Richmond.
 William Ridgeway, Cambridge University.
 Rev. W. J. F. Robberds, Bishop of Brechin.
 G. H. Robinson, Lord Mayor of Bradford.
 J. Holland Rose, Cambridge University.

Earl of Rosebery.
 Sir Ronald Ross.
 Michael E. Sadler, Leeds University.
 Sir J. E. Sandys, Cambridge University.
 John S. Sargent.
 Rev. A. H. Sayce, Oxford University.
 Arthur Schuster, Manchester University.
 Charles Scott, Lord Provost of Perth.
 Sir Owen Seaman.
 Sir E. H. Seymour.
 George R. Sims.
 May Sinclair.
 George Adam Smith, Aberdeen University.
 W. R. Sorley, Cambridge University.
 Flora Annie Steel.
 Rev. Thomas B. Strong, Oxford University.
 Alfred Sutro.
 Rev. Canon H. B. Swete, Cambridge University.
 James Taggart, Lord Provost of Aberdeen.
 J. Arthur Thomson, Aberdeen University.
 Sir Joseph J. Thomson.
 George Macaulay Trevelyan.
 Sir George Otto Trevelyan.
 Sir A. W. Ward, Cambridge University.
 Humphry Ward.
 Mary A. Ward (Mrs. Humphry Ward.)
 Oliver C. Wilson, Lord Mayor of Sheffield.
 The Bishop of Winchester.
 Margaret L. Woods.
 Sir Almroth Wright.
 C. Hagberg Wright, London Library.
 Joseph Wright, Oxford University.



Germany Fed

By Dr. Max Sering

Senior Professor of Economics in the University of Berlin.

Richmond, Va., July 17, 1915.

To the Editor of The New York Times:

Herewith I beg to hand you a translation of a letter recently received by me from Professor Max Sering, the senior professor in the Department of Economics at the University of Berlin. During the eighties he twice visited this country and wrote a book entitled "Agricultural Competition of North America." Since that time he has written a great deal, particularly on agricultural subjects. He was actively engaged in the great work, undertaken many years ago, whereby the State bought up great tracts of small land parcels and redivided the whole into compact tracts, giving to each former owner the equivalent of his previous possessions and at the same time effecting great economic gains and establishing a helpful settlement of farmers in large portions of the eastern part of the empire.

As may be seen from the letter, Dr. Sering has been, since August of last year, busily engaged in working out the food problems arising out of Germany's isolation from transoceanic grain-producing countries. The information he gives is therefore authentic.

W. S. McNEILL.

THE LETTER.

MY Dear Mr. McNeill:

Your letter of Dec. 3, 1914, gave me a great deal of pleasure. It was like a ray of sunlight breaking through the clouds of hatred and distrust which the English writers and press have drawn, like a curtain, between your and our country. From your letter and from your essay, "America's Attitude Toward the War," I saw how bravely and intelligently you have stood up for Germany and her moral rights in this war.

If, in spite of this, I have not answered any sooner, it was because you

asked for information with regard to the question whether we would be able to get along with our food and war material supply. At that time, however, I was somewhat in doubt with regard to the matter, and did not want to confide my fears to a letter. It is evident that, in consequence of the attitude of America and other neutrals, we had to solve some very serious problems, for heretofore we have been in the habit of importing from one-fifth to one-fourth of all our raw materials and foodstuffs. Since the outbreak of the war very little is being imported. In consequence of this, very difficult organizations became necessary, the finding of substitutes, and a governmental regulation of the demand, which were to safeguard everything that was absolutely necessary for the conduct of the war and for the feeding of the population, even at the expense of the production and the consumption of things not so necessary or more easily spared. I, myself, have participated in the work of solving these problems.

Since the outbreak of the war I have worked on only this from morning until night, but now I can say that the problems have been solved completely and in every direction. We can now continue the war indefinitely. I have reported about all this in an address before the Academy of Sciences. As soon as this address has been printed I shall send you a copy. I shall mention only the most important part here.

The complete cutting off of the supply of Chile saltpeter during the war has been made good by our now taking nitrogen directly out of the air in large factories built during and before the war. With extraordinary rapidity the question has been solved how the enormous quantities of the needed ammunition were to be produced, a question which in England still meets with diffi-

culties in spite of the help from America. It is, however, not only for the needed explosives that we take nitrogen from the air, but also for the nitrogen-containing fertilizers which we formerly imported in the form of Chile saltpetre.

As to our foodstuffs, you will know that the Government on Feb. 1, 1915, took over all the grain, and prescribed to each one a certain portion of bread and flour. In the beginning this portion was somewhat scant because we wanted to be sure that our supply would last until the new crop. Now, however, it has been found that the thrashing results of the last crop were more favorable than we had estimated. We are entering the new crop year with such large stocks that some weeks ago the prices for flour and bread could be reduced considerably and the bread portion of the working population could be enlarged.

Potatoes also, which for a while were very expensive, have lately become quite cheap, because, unexpectedly, large supplies were found when the potato pits were opened. The prices for bread and potatoes, and even for beef, are now much lower than in England, where things were allowed to regulate themselves.

As our industry fitted itself with the greatest elasticity to the problems brought about by the war, unemployment is less than before the war, the workmen receive higher wages, and the masses with us are well nourished. You would find in Berlin and in every other place in Germany a people enjoying good health, and who on every nice Sunday and holiday have plenty of relaxation and pleasure.

In the final analysis this success is due to the high degree of education in our population. Many little discomforts, which we were obliged to put on them, were borne cheerfully; people hardly talked about them. The first year of the war being happily behind us, we do not worry about the second year, as now we have accustomed ourselves to the new conditions, all organizations are working well, and the crops in Germany are

sufficient to supply all the wants of the population generously. The supply of meat will become somewhat scant by and by, but that does not matter, as we have been in the habit of eating too much meat. The hygienically necessary quantity of albumen and calorie is at the disposition of every one.

We are, of course, very curious to learn how President Wilson will handle the Lusitania case, and are satisfied that a peaceful solution can be found if he does not insist entirely, as heretofore, on the English viewpoint. * * *

Should Germany be overcome in this war, something I consider out of the question, the strongest of the European national States would thereby be condemned to inertia; then there would be from Norway to the Persian Gulf only Russian or English vassal states. European culture, however, is based on a general mixture of different nationalities, of which each can unfold itself in a separate State. A defeat of our country would therefore be equivalent to the destruction of European culture. If you lived in our country it would give you pleasure to see with what calmness and absolute assurance of final victory our youths and our men march to the front, how proud and full of assurance their letters sound, and what an astonishing physical and moral strength an organized people of nearly 70,000,000 can put forward. Here everything is full of young soldiers, only now the recruits for the year 1915 have been called to the colors, (those 20 years old,) while the French are sending already to the battle-fields 17-year-old boys, and even the Russians have called in already the recruits of the year 1916.

The attempt to destroy a great people, only because by diligence and thoroughness it has become uncomfortable for the idle and the rich in other countries, and because it insisted on being treated as an equal by States which surpass it in territory and in number of inhabitants, this dastardly plan of the British statesmen from Edward VII. to Sir Edward Grey will surely fail.

M. SERING.

Spain and the War

By Leaders of Spanish Thought

Some Spanish intellectuals have published the following manifesto, which appeared in the British press late in July. It will be observed that among the signatories are members of all Spanish political parties. Side by side with Radicals, Reformists, and Republicans appear the names of Conservatives, and even Traditionalists or Carlists. Along with the name of the great Republican and Professor of Comparative Jurisprudence, Señor Azcárate, appears that of Azorín, the famous author of "Voluntad," who is counted among the Conservative followers of Señor Maura. The name of the author of "Episodios Nacionales," Señor Pérez Galdós, whose anti-clerical campaign is well known to all, runs together with that of the priest Don Julio Cejador, famous for his philological studies. It is also noteworthy how many of the signatories have had ties with Germany. Señores Maeztu, Araquistain, both journalists of European reputation, and Pérez de Ayala, the novelist, have lived in Germany; Señores Zuloaga, Anglado-Camarassa, Acosta, and Romero de Torres have obtained the highest awards in German exhibitions, while others have been open admirers of German literature and science. Among the names appear those of Señor Simarro, Professor of Experimental Psychology; Señor Cossío, Professor of Education; Señor Ortega y Gasset, Professor of Metaphysics; Señor Unamuno, Professor of Greek in the University of Salamanca; the dramatist Señor Martínez Sierra, the novelists Señores Valle-Inclán and Palacio Valdés, the poets Señores Machado and Mesa, and Señor Acebal, the editor of the review *La Lectura*.

THE MANIFESTO.

MODESTLY and soberly we raise our voice to utter these words as Spaniards and as men. It is not fitting that in this, the greatest crisis in the history of the world, the historian of Spain should say that she was inarticulate and indifferent to the course of events; that she stood on one side, a barren and insensate rock, or turned her back to the future, to reason and to morality. It is not fitting that at this moment of profound gravity and intense emotion, when the human race is racked with intolerable suffering in giving birth to a closer and firmer fraternity of mankind, Spain, in her blindness, should remain unmoved by the pangs with which the world is torn. Worse still would it be that her part should be to stir up the bitterness of voices inflamed by unreasoning passion and the insults of mercenary writers and newspapers.

We have no time to speak, except that given by quiet lives devoted to the pure activities of the mind, but we feel that in order to serve our country by being honest and useful citizens of the world, and so we are confident that we are doing our duty as Spaniards and as men by declaring that we share with all our heart and soul in the conflict which is

shaking the world to its foundations. We stand firm on the side of the Allies, inasmuch as they represent the ideals of liberty and justice, and therefore their cause coincides with the highest political interests of the nation. Our conscience reprobates all actions which detract from the dignity of mankind and the respect which men owe to one another, even in the fiercest moment of the struggle.

Most ardently do we hope that when peace comes the lesson may be turned to the honor and profit of all nations, and we trust that the triumph of the cause that we hold to be just will lead to the recognition of the essential part which the life of each nation, great or small, weak or strong, has played in the progress of mankind, will destroy the riot of egoism, domination, and devilish brutality which led to the catastrophe, and will lay the foundation of a new international fraternity in which force will be directed toward its true object, namely, the preservation of reason and justice.

The letter is signed by:

PROFESSORS.

Gumersindo de Azcárate.	Enrique Díez Canedo.
Nicolás Achúcarro.	Américo Castro.
Domingo Barnés.	Julio Cejador.
Odon de Buen.	Manuel B. Cossío.
Adolfo Builla.	José Goyanes.
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 Ignacio Inglesias.

Antonio Machado.
 Manuel Machado.
 Ramiro de Maetzu.
 Gregorio Martinez
 Sierra.
 Enrique de Mesa.
 Armando Palacio
 Valdés.
 Benito Perez Galdós.
 Ramón Perez de
 Ayala.
 Ramón del
 Valle-Inclan.

PAINTERS (*con primera medalla.*)

"Much Distressed"

By WALTER SICHEL

[From the London Daily Mail]

The Kaiser (after the Allies' air raid on Karlsruhe) is "much distressed."

When Herod of Jewry
 Had sated his fury
 By massacres—east and west—
 Of the child unoffending,
 'Mid anguish heartrending,
 And the babe at its mother's breast—
 It is said he was "much distressed."

When the musical Cæsar—
 By Tiber, not Yser—
 Had burned with an epicure's zest,
 Sans reason or pity,
 To light up the city,
 Noble martyrs who Christ confessed—
 'Tis believed he was "much distressed."

So when Attila, Kaiser
 And torture-deviser,
 Finds hellishness put to the test,
 How he whimpers, yet, Hunnish,
 Calls Heaven to punish
 The requiters of murder and pest—
 Yes, the biter when bit is "distressed."

England's Saving Qualities

By J. H. Rosny

Translated from the French by Thomas Hardy.

The article which follows is quoted from "The Book of France," just edited by Miss Winifred Stephens, and published by Macmillan, for the twofold reason that it well represents the excellent literary material in the work and that it is an able analysis of the inherent British qualities which help that nation through its ordeal.

FOR centuries England has been the most fortunate nation in Europe. Her very mistakes—and some of them have been grave—seem to have turned to her advantage. Her errors have done her no harm. In war time she has shown herself capable of repairing the faults of an organization often defective and sometimes deplorable.

For example, she was totally unprepared for her struggle with Napoleon. Nevertheless, she was by far the most formidable adversary of imperial France. At the opening of the Crimean war her army was quite out of date. In the Boer war she had foreseen neither the difficulties nor the new methods of warfare which were to prevail in that struggle, although she ought to have learned them from the events of 1881.

England's success, therefore, has not always been the result of her foresight or of her prudence. It even involved a certain risk for which a less gifted nation might have had to pay dearly. It is "character" which, with the English throughout all ages, has repaired the errors and faults that have arisen from an overweening confidence in the resources of the three kingdoms.

Into this national character enters, in addition to a relish for adventure and risk, a certain reasonableness which imposes limits, and, among the best, a certain dogged tenacity and indomitable will served by admirably clear vision. Hitherto no one in the world has known so well as the Englishman how to blend those qualities which inspire grand enterprises with the prudence which sees how to avoid haste, excess, and infatuation. And this it is which, combined with her insular position, has enabled

Great Britain to organize a dominion more vast than that of ancient Rome.

Yet another cause—at least in modern times—has contributed to her success. I refer to England's tolerant attitude toward other European nations, great and small. It is long now—indeed ever since the opening of the industrial era—since England first learned to respect the rights of other peoples. Take her own Dominions, for example: she has put French-Canadians into such an advantageous position that, quite naturally, they include themselves among the empire's most loyal subjects. After the Boer War the Boer General in Chief became the political leader in South Africa. In India the natives have been generously governed, and Great Britain has done her best to improve the lot of the poor and to put an end to the scourge of famine.

Toward foreigners England has behaved with equal justice. Holland has not been disturbed in her possession of vast colonies; Portugal peaceably holds her African possessions; and France, since 1871, has been able to build up a great colonial empire. Besides favoring the liberation of Greece and Italy, England has always been kind to little neutral countries. All Europe never for an instant doubts that England grows more and more inclined to act justly toward all civilized nations; that, from the Balkans to the Atlantic, she aims at no territorial conquest, and that she is not moved by any tyrannical motives.

How can she avoid exercising a magnificent moral influence, at a time especially when another nation, formidable alike through its military and industrial power, is threatening all liberty, despis-

ing all rights, tearing up all treaties which have become inconvenient, recognizing no rule save her own will, no laws save those dictated by her appetites, her pride, her scorn, or her ferocity?

Today Englands fate is intimately linked with that of Europe, far more intimately than in the beginning of the nineteenth century, for the French spirit did not then menace the very essence of the movement toward civilization, which began at the Renaissance. With

Germany victorious, "lasciate ogn speranza!" (give up all hope.) It would mean the end of a glorious epoch. * * * But the Allies will not be conquered. Heroic France has returned. England, the undaunted, out of her soil has miraculously caused armies to spring. Russia stands ready for gigantic battle.

Once again England shall be happy England. From this terrific ordeal she will come forth greater, fairer, more beloved.

Sons of the Prairie

[From Truth.]

"They are lost, our guns, to the conquering Huns."
 "Lost?" will you tell us so?
 In the lingo's test of the grim Far West,
 'Tis a word we do not know."
 And they gritted their teeth their lips beneath,
 Those Prairie's hard-bit sons,
 As from man to man the catchword ran,
 "We'll have back the captured guns."

On that quest all bent at the foe they went,
 The lads of the great Far West,
 Their blood on fire with a righteous ire,
 And they fought like men possessed.
 One brief hot spell of loosened hell;
 Hell for the baffled Huns,
 But a time was this of wild mad bliss
 To the Prairie's dashing sons.

They slew, were slain, yet knew no pain
 In the thrill of the breathless hour
 When the big guns flash and the bayonets clash
 And you're gripped in the war-lust's power.
 And the Teutons fought as they should and ought,
 All martial Deutschland's sons,
 But the Prairie breed were the men at need,
 And they had back the captured guns.

Their fame resounds to the empire's bounds,
 Lads of the grim Far West,
 Who saved the day in that breathless fray
 And bettered the foeman's best.
 And methinks that foe will now be slow
 To boast of his captured guns,
 While accounts are there and still to square
 With the pick of the Prairie's sons.

The French Fighting As One

By Owen Johnson

Owen Johnson, the novelist, who returned at the close of July from a month in France, where he had been gathering material for magazine articles, declared that the thing that struck his attention most when he landed in New York was the green and red parasols of the women on the pier. "There are no colors in Paris," he said. "Every one is in black or some other dark stuff. Those who feel like rejoicing themselves refrain out of delicacy, for fear they may offend the feelings of some one else who has reason to mourn." One of the purposes of Mr. Johnson's visit was to present to the French authorities, as an American who had lived in France and was strongly sympathetic with the French cause, the advisability of allowing a little more publicity for the French side of the war in this country. His statement appears below.

THE French have seen the results of the great German campaign for American public opinion, and naturally they are reluctant, for this reason as well as for others, to set their side of the case out more fully. The French people are proud. Their attitude in this war has been, "We are doing as we should, but we will let other nations find this fact out for themselves." They are inclined to think that a sister republic would naturally give them her sympathy. They fail to realize the American psychology, and are apt to think that when a true presentation of the case is given once that is sufficient.

The result is that the idea has tended to grow up in some circles in this country that the war is a German-English conflict primarily. Many French leaders are now beginning to realize this, and many American friends of France are urging that something be done to correct it—to allow the freer passage of news, to permit American observers to see more of the French side of the war, and to send representative Frenchmen to tell stories of the heroism of French troops.

I am inclined to think that some such measures will be taken—perhaps next Winter. I had interviews of an hour's duration with President Poincaré and Foreign Minister Delcassé; I also talked with Premier Viviani, Paul Deschanel, President of the Chamber of Deputies, and former Premier Briand. I had an

hour's talk with General Galliemi, Governor of Paris, and an hour with General Joffre, in the course of the period of several days which I was allowed to spend at the front.

The unanimity of the French is of course amazing; they are absolutely determined to end the possibility of the recurrence of a similar war. From the President down to the factory workers, they all said the same thing: "We realize that it will take a long, hard fight to beat the Germans, but we want to finish things up so that our children will never have to go through this sort of thing."

Mr. Johnson not only saw the officials and officers—he went into factories, into hospitals, into trenches—into the 200 great ouvrails in Paris which furnish employment to about 350,000 women whom the war would otherwise have made destitute—women, many of them of good family, now working for from 1 franc 25 to 1 franc 75 a day, making clothing and other supplies for the army. He thinks that the spirit of all France as he saw it ought to be put before the Americans by representative Frenchmen—"such men as the philosopher Bergson or Pastor Wagner," he suggested. "Men like James Hazen Hyde and Whitney Warren are doing a great work in Paris, but there ought to be more chance for Americans to find out what France is really thinking."

One thing that Mr. Johnson says has injured the reputation of the United States in France is the poor quality of

some of the goods shipped over on the first war contracts. He continued:

All Americans who are interested in the French cause feel very keenly the fact that of the first lots of supplies, such as shoes, socks, kitchens on wheels, and so on, that were shipped to the French Army many were very bad, indeed. I know for a fact that some of the representatives of the best American shoe manufacturers happened to be negotiating for orders in Paris when some of the early shipments of shoes made by inexperienced, and in some cases irresponsible, firms arrived, and the poor quality of these kept the real American shoe manufacturers from getting the orders. It was very probable that some of the first commissions sent over from France were not as well qualified to judge on the quality of the goods presented as were their successors, but it was a serious blow to the reputation of American commercial integrity. Any European nation in our position would have its war shipments inspected by a commission of its own, sitting in the capital; and certainly there ought to be some way to handle the situation in this country. I should think that the Chambers of Commerce might very well take some steps to safeguard the quality of shipments in such a situation as this, where our nation's commercial reputation may be determined for years in the minds of foreigners by these products. I think that we should even come to the point of publishing the names of the firms guilty of shipping over supplies that are of insufficient quality, as a guarantee to future purchasers and a sign of the national disapprobation.

Mr. Johnson had unusual opportunities of getting over the French lines at the war front. He was in a party containing Walter Hale, the artist; Arnold Bennett, the English novelist; a representative of the British Foreign Office, and one or two American newspaper men. They got near enough to the front to be

under fire three times; and in one case Mr. Johnson went so far forward in a French mining gallery that he was actually under a German trench. On this subject he said:

I happened to see the Germans bombarding the Cathedral of Rheims about June 20, and the Cathedral of Arras some ten days later. There was absolutely no excuse for it in either case. Later I lunched with M. Dalimier, Minister of Public Instruction, under whose department comes the care of historic monuments, and he told me that he was afraid the Germans would in time destroy even what was left at Rheims. Every time the French won a success anywhere, he said, the Germans evened up by another bombardment of cathedrals; he said that at Soissons was also suffering. "There is in the Cathedral of Rheims," he told me, "some of the priceless old stained glass, several centuries old, which has survived all the bombardments so far. We do not dare to put up scaffolding to take it down and take it away to a place of safety lest the Germans will use that as a pretext—calling it an observation tower, or something of the sort—for the complete destruction of the building."

More than once we got out into the open rather carelessly and were made the target of German shells. Fortunately you can hear the shells coming about a second before they get to you, and that second gives you time to throw yourself on the ground and roll into one of the fifteen-foot-deep connecting trenches which run all about through the country in the rear of the firing line.

One thing that shows how the nation is united is the fact that on the Executive Committee of the Secours National, which arranges for all the war relief among soldiers' families, you find the Archbishop of Paris, the chief rabbi, the chief Protestant minister, Royalists, Bonapartists, and Radicals. That never happened before in France.

British Excuses for Not Enlisting

(Report of the London County Council)

The correspondence of The Westminster Gazette of July 27, 1915, gives suggestions as to why eligible young men do not enlist. A report of the L. C. C. brought before the Council on that date presents actual reasons, given officially, as to why young men who are seeking scholarships or extensions are not anxious to join the army. Subjoined are excuses, selected from the circular, the figures in parentheses being the ages of the candidates:

Is supporting a widowed mother and three young children, and is a bound apprentice with one or more years to serve, (20 years, 8 months.)

Has to support a widowed mother and assist in supporting a younger brother. His elder brother and several relatives in the army, (19 years, 8 months.)

Is apprenticed, with two more years to serve. Two brothers in the army, and, being the only one left at home, has been asked by his parents not to enlist, (18 years, 10 months.)

Has endeavored to enlist, but is half an inch too short, (19 years.)

Has two brothers in the army, one training for the navy, and another engaged on munitions. He is only son left at home, and parents do not wish him to enlist. Has now undertaken munitions work, (18 years, 5 months.)

Is apprenticed to an architect and surveyor and hopes to "assist in rebuilding the war area," which, if his studies are interrupted by enlistment, he would not be qualified to do, (19 years, 8 months.)

States that his father is out of work and he has to help to support his mother; further, that two of his brothers have enlisted, (19 years, 8 months.)

States that when he was 18 he enlisted in the Nineteenth Hussars, but bought himself out after six months, and does not intend to join again unless it is

absolutely necessary, (26 years, 3 months.)

Is married and serving as a Special Constable. In addition, has been engaged on work for the Government, (31 years, 2 months.)

States that he is apprenticed to a firm which is engaged on Government contracts and which has been asked by the War Office not to allow the employees to enlist, (20 years, 11 months.)

States that he is employed by a firm of Government printers who have been notified by the War Office that no men are expected to enlist from the firm, (23 years, 11 months.)

Is conducting a building business in the City, and states that it is impossible for him to enlist at present, (25 years.)

Is not of military age, and thinks it would be a mistake to join the army in the middle of his studies, which would ruin the prospects of his future career. Is engaged in the alizarine dye industry, and has offered to make war munitions in his spare time, (18 years, 1 month.)

States that he has no intention of enlisting except as a munition worker, and that his present firm is partially engaged in such work, (20 years, 4 months.)

States that he intends to join the army if possible in two or three weeks' time, but that if unsuccessful will do so when he is 19, (17 years, 11 months.)

States that he is engaged as a chemist at Woolwich Arsenal and holds a badge and certificate that he is so employed. Is quite willing to enlist, but the authorities at the arsenal do not wish it, (22 years, 9 months.)

States that he has objections to military service, (19 years, 6 months.)

Wishes to progress with his studies in order to earn his living as soon as possible, and so give financial help at home, which his father's failing health renders necessary, (21 years, 5 months.)

States that his father is dead, and as

he is an only child it is his mother's wish that he should not enlist, but that he is applying for a position in a small arms factory, (22 years, 3 months.)

States that, owing to the collapse of his father's business, the upkeep of the home depends entirely on his brother and himself, otherwise he would have enlisted, (22 years, 9 months.)

States that he is unable to enlist owing to his having had rheumatic fever, but has registered himself as a municipal volunteer, (21 years, 5 months.)

States that he is an only son; that his father is in his seventy-ninth year and mother an invalid, and that they look to him for support, but that he will enroll himself as a munition worker, (20 years, 1 month.)

Describes the hard struggle he has had since he was twelve years of age to better his prospects, his mother being a widow; that he has seriously considered the question of enlistment, but feels that a long interruption of his study would be seriously detrimental to his future prospects, (23 years, 6 months.)

States that he is a member of the religious body known as the "Christadelphians," (20 years, 5 months.)

Letter from parent stating that two of the candidate's brothers have been killed, and that the candidate is not physically strong enough to enlist, (19 years.)

States he could not pass medical ex-

amination, and adds that home circumstances prevent him enlisting, (20 years 8 months.)

Is not yet of military age, and states that he is an indentured servant; that his employers expect Government contracts, and do not see their way clear to relinquish the services of any more employes, and that he does not feel physically fit for military service, (18 years, 2 months.)

States that he endeavored to enlist in the Territorials in August last when age limit was 18 to 35, but was rejected on account of his size, (18 years, 3 months.)

Is an only son, and has to keep a small private business going to help his mother, and that he is under the required height and chest measurement, (20 years, 5 months.)

States that his parents object on the ground of his health not being good, (18 years, 11 months.)

Has no wish to join the army, "being in the mechanical line," but is quite willing to do munition work, (18 years, 7 months.)

States that his mother is a widow relying for support on her family, of which he is the eldest son; that if he joined the army he would have to defer the completion of his apprenticeship; that in the event of being disabled or killed his mother would receive no allowance. He is particularly anxious to compete for a post in the stationery stores, (18 years, 4 months.)

Through the Mouths of Our Guns

By ANATOLE FRANCE

We will carry on this war, which we did not want, to the bitter end. We will continue our terrible and beneficent task until the German military power is completely destroyed. We love peace too dearly to allow it to be unstable. It is criminal to cry for peace and criminal to desire it until we have reduced to nothingness the forces of oppression which have weighed so much upon Europe for the last half-century. Until this is done we must only talk through the mouths of our guns. So many heroes must not have died in vain.

If I were to learn that any Frenchman allowed himself to be seduced by masked phantoms of a hideous peace I would ask Parliament to declare a traitor to his country anyone who would propose to treat with the enemy whilst he occupies the smallest part of French or Belgian territory.

A Vision of the Battle Front

By Pierre Loti

This article, by Pierre Loti, (Captain Viaud,) recording his observations on the French war front, appeared originally in *L'Illustration*, and is translated for **THE NEW YORK TIMES CURRENT HISTORY** by Charles Johnston.

WALKING on that bullet-riddled ground, where the storm of grapeshot has left hardly a tuft of grass here and there, a little moss, a poor flower, I come first to a line of defenses being prepared as the second line, in the unlikely event that the first, a little further forward, should yield. Our soldiers, transformed into navvies, are working in the trench, shovel and pick in hand, all full of determination and joyous, hurrying to complete it; and it will be terrible, surrounded by the most dangerous snares. It is the Germans, I admit it willingly, who, with their careful, evil minds, have invented this whole system of tunnels and ambuscades; but, as we are keener than they, and quicker in mind, we have in a few days equaled, if not surpassed, them.

A thousand paces further forward I reach the first line. It is full of men, this trench which is to stop the rush of the barbarians; day and night it is ready to bristle with guns. And the men who are living in it, just concealed in the earth, know that from one minute to the next may begin the daily sprinkling of shells, carrying away heads that venture outside, crushing in breasts, mangling entrails. They know also that at no matter what unforeseen hour, beneath the pale sun or in the gloom of midnight, the rushes of the barbarians, of whom the forest over there is still full, may come down upon them; they know how they will come, running, with cries to arouse fear, all holding each other by the arms in a single maddened mass, and how, before fatally entangling themselves in our barbed-wire nets, they will find means, as always, to do much harm. They know this, for they have already seen it all, but all the same they smile with serious dignity. It will soon be

eight days that they have been in this trench, waiting to be relieved, and yet they complain of nothing. "We are well fed," they say. "We have as much as we wish to eat. So long as it does not rain, we are warm at night in our f :es' earths, under a good blanket. But we have not yet got woolen underclothing for the Winter, for all of us, and we shall soon need it. When you go back to Paris, mon Colonel, perhaps you could remind the Government of that, and all those ladies who are working for us."

(Mon Colonel is the only title the soldier knows for officers with five stripes. During the last expedition to China I had already been mon Colonel, but I did not expect to become so again, alas! for a war on French soil.)

The men who are chatting with me, at the edge, or from the bottom of that trench, belong to the most widely separated classes of society; some of them have been men of fashion and leisure, others workmen, farmers; there are even some, with their military caps tilted a little too much on one side, and with the accent of the slums, whose past it would doubtless be better not to inquire into, and who have none the less become here not only brave fellows, but fine fellows. This war, at the same time that it has bridged over our distances, will have purified us all and made us greater; without wishing it, the Germans have done us this good, which is surely worth while! And then our soldiers all know what they are fighting for, and this is their greatest power; indignation will inspire them to their last breath.

"When you have seen," two young Breton peasants say to me, "when you have seen with your own eyes what those brutes do in the villages they pass through, it is quite natural, is it not, to

give your life to try to keep them from coming to do the same thing in our homes?" And the roar of cannon accompanies this naive declaration with a deep, incessant bass. . . . And it is the same thing from end to end of this limitless line; everywhere the same determination, the same courage. At one place or another, to chat with them is equally comforting, and inspires equal admiration.

But it is strange to tell ourselves that, in our twentieth century, to guard ourselves from savagery and horror, we have had to construct trenches like these from the east to the west of our dear country, double and triple, running unbroken for hundreds of miles, like a kind of Chinese wall a hundred times more to be feared than the wall which guarded China against the Mongols, a wall twisting like a serpent, almost beneath the earth, stealthily, and which is filled with the heroic youth of France, ceaselessly on the watch, ceaselessly dabbled with blood. . . .

This evening, the twilight drags on sadly under the heavy sky and seems never to end; two hours ago, it seemed already beginning, yet you can still see. In front of us we can still distinguish or divine, as far as the eye can reach, the unrolling of two masses of forest, the more distant of which has almost no outline now in the darkness. And my heart is constricted by the still more poignant feeling of a plunge back into the depths of primeval barbarism, without escape and without remedy.

"Mon Colonel, this is the time when, for the last week, we have our little sprinkling of shells every evening; if you

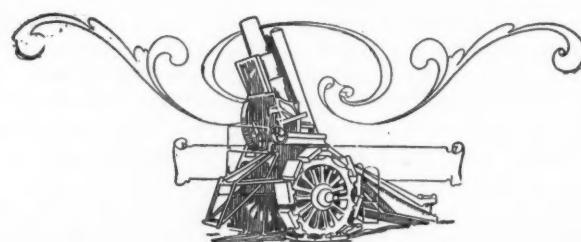
can wait a little, you will see how rapidly they fire and almost at random.

Time to wait, no, I hardly have it; and besides I have already had the opportunity elsewhere to see how rapidly they fire, almost at random. At times you would say parade fireworks, and it leads you to believe they have so much ammunition they do not know what to do with it. Yet I shall very willingly remain a moment more, to see it again in their company.

Ah! . . . Here comes through the air a kind of whirring like a flight of partridges—partridges passing very quickly, with metallic wings—a change from the muffled cannonade of just now, and it is in our direction it begins to come. But much too high, and especially far too far to the left, so much too far that it is certainly not at us they are aiming this time; they would have to be very stupid for that. . . . Yet we cease chatting, our ears are strained. . . . A dozen shells, and it is over.

"It is finished!" they tell me then. "Now their time is past. And it was for our comrades along there. You are not in luck, mon Colonel, this is the very first time that it is not we that caught it. . . . And it looks as if the Huns are tired, this evening!"

Night has come, and I ought to be far away by this time. Besides, they are all going to sleep now; they cannot kindle any lights, of course; cigarettes, at the most. I grasp many hands, one after the other, and I leave these poor children of France in their dormitory which, in the silence and the darkness, has suddenly become as funereal as a long common ditch in a graveyard.



THE EUROPEAN WAR AS SEEN BY CARTOONISTS

[English Cartoon]

A Friend in Need



—From *Punch*, London.

GERMANY: "WHO SAID 'GOD PUNISH ENGLAND!?' GOD BLESS ENGLAND, WHO LETS US HAVE THE SINEWS OF WAR."

[German Cartoon]

The Latest from the Russian Steam-roller



—From *Lustige Blaetter*, Berlin.

“It's no use— We'll have to oil it again!”

[American Cartoon]

A World Which Cannot Be Held Back

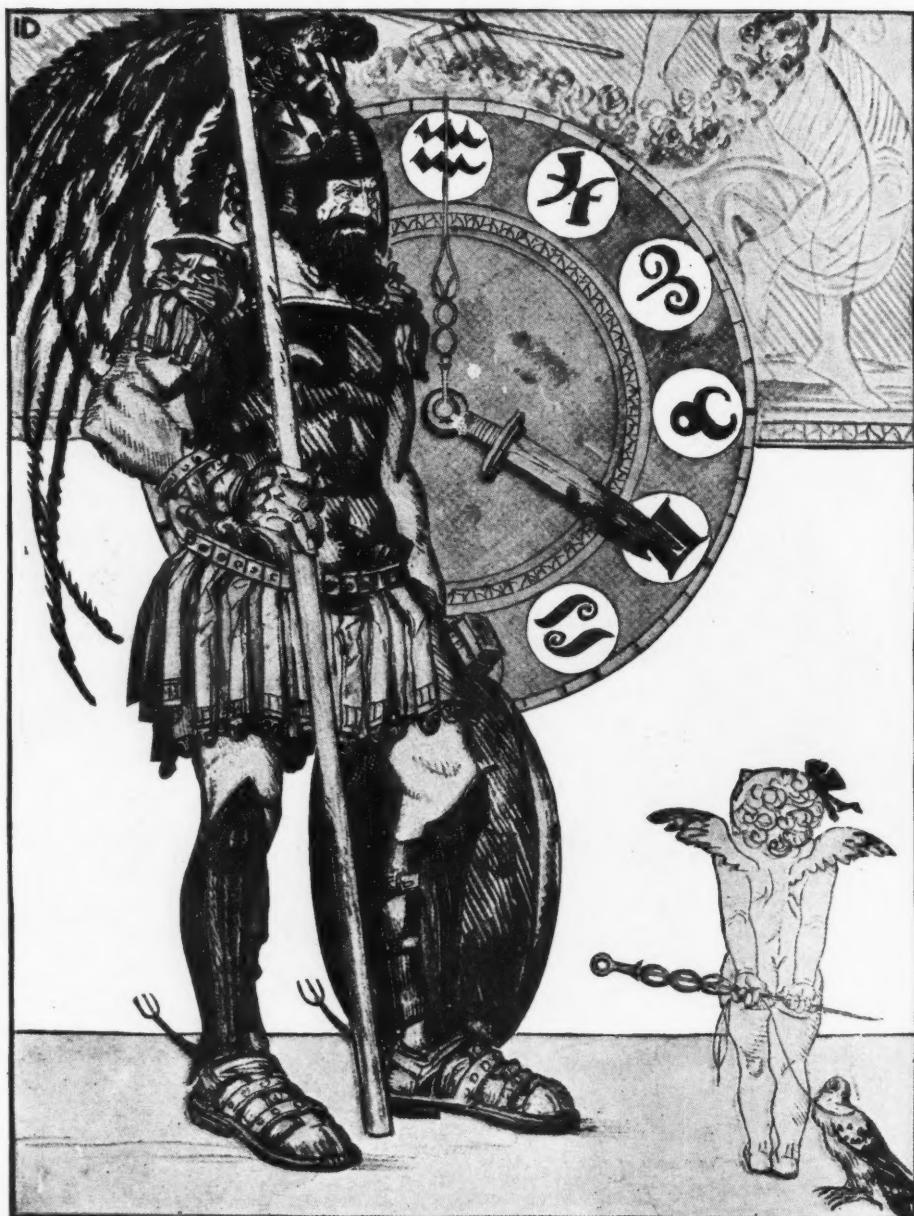


—From *The New York Evening Sun*.

The Kaiser's Task After One Year of War.

[German Cartoon]

The Timid Question



—From *Jugend*, Munich.

“When, Mars, will you let me regulate the clock?”

“Patience, my boy; I’ll be through by Fall. Then the whole winter will be Maytime.”

[English Cartoon]
A New Train of Thought



—From *The Sketch*, London.
THE EXALTED PERSONAGE: Tirp, old man—you remember we sent some submarines overland to Zeebrugge?

TIRP: Yes, Sire.

THE EXALTED PERSONAGE: Then what's the matter with sending the fleet by train to the Dardanelles?

The International Chautauqua



—From *The World*, New York.

His Enthusiastic Audience.

[Spanish Cartoon]

The Blockade of the Seas



—From *Blanco y Negro*, Madrid.

“Brother Shark, we are assured of subsistence for ourselves and our children while the war lasts—and may it last a hundred years!”

[German Cartoon]

Grave Times at Windsor



—From *Simplicissimus*, Munich.

With the loud approval of the Salvation Army, King George drives out the Demon Rum.

[English Cartoon]

Wilful Murder

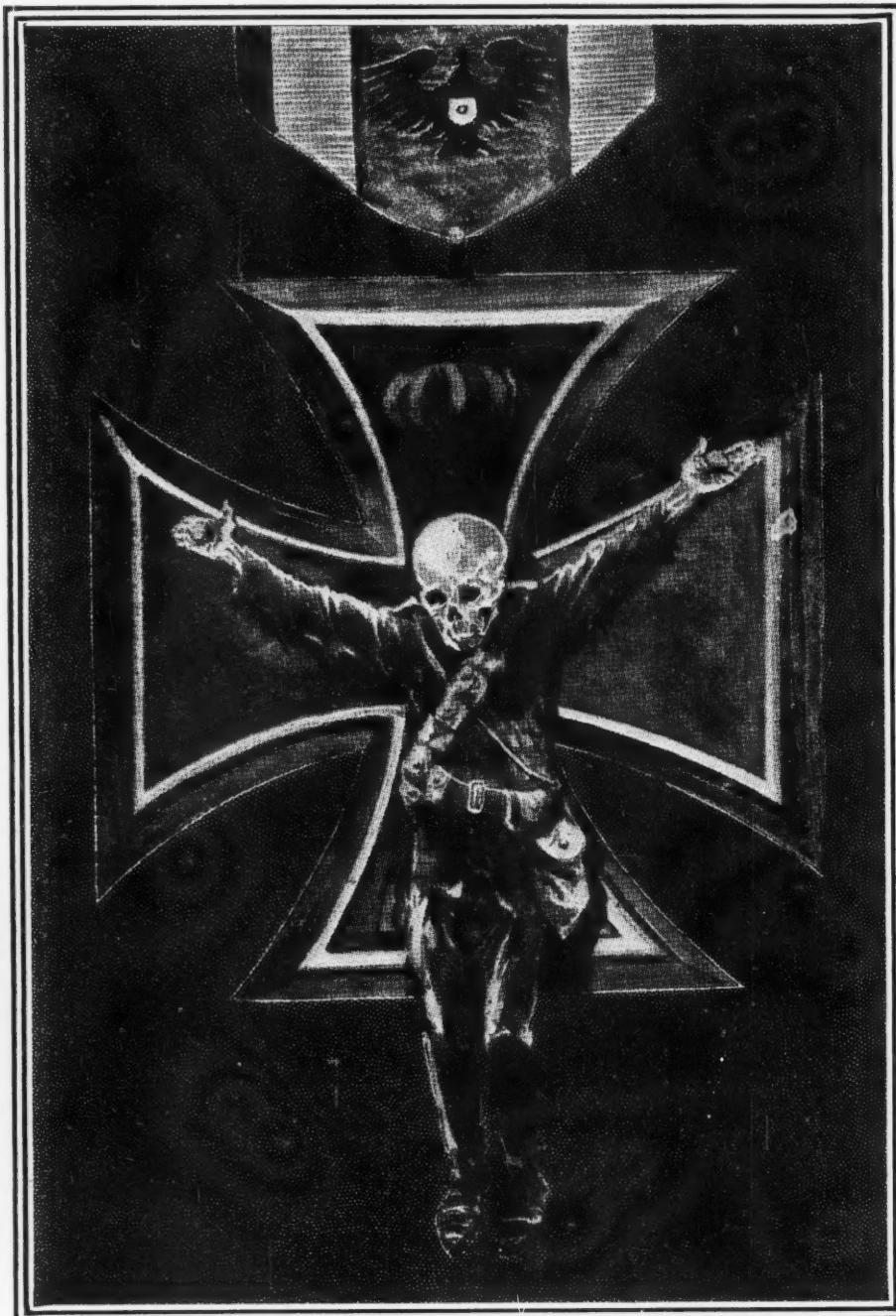


—From *Punch, London.*

THE KAISER: "To the Day—" DEATH: "—of Reckoning!"

[Australian Cartoon]

The Iron Cross



—From *The Bulletin*, Sydney, N. S. W.

[German Cartoon]

England's Suffragette Troops

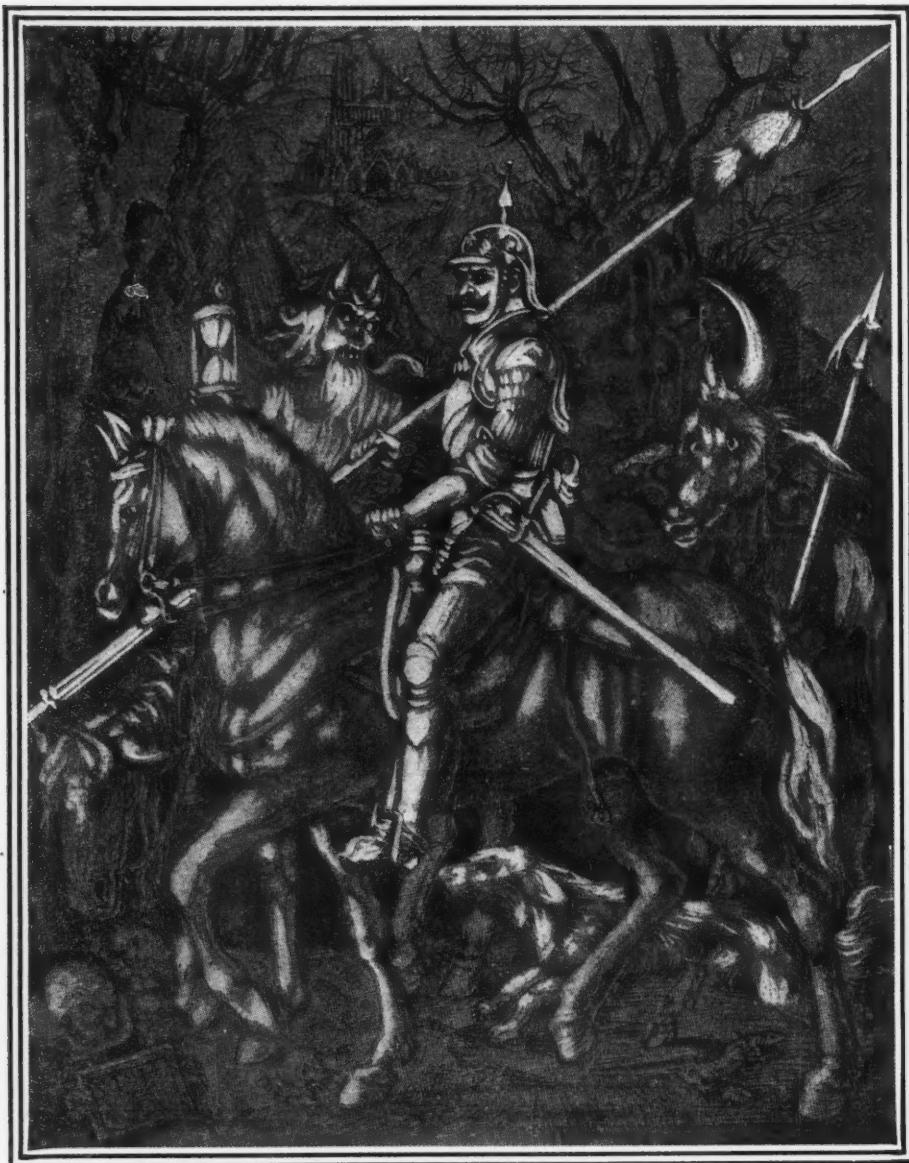


—From *Lustige Blaetter, Berlin.*

“We are lost, girls—there's a mouse!”

[Spanish Cartoon]

The Knight, Death and the Devil



—From *Espana*, Madrid.

With due apologies to Albrecht Duerer.



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A German Choral Society Practicing a Popular Madrigal

[English Cartoon]

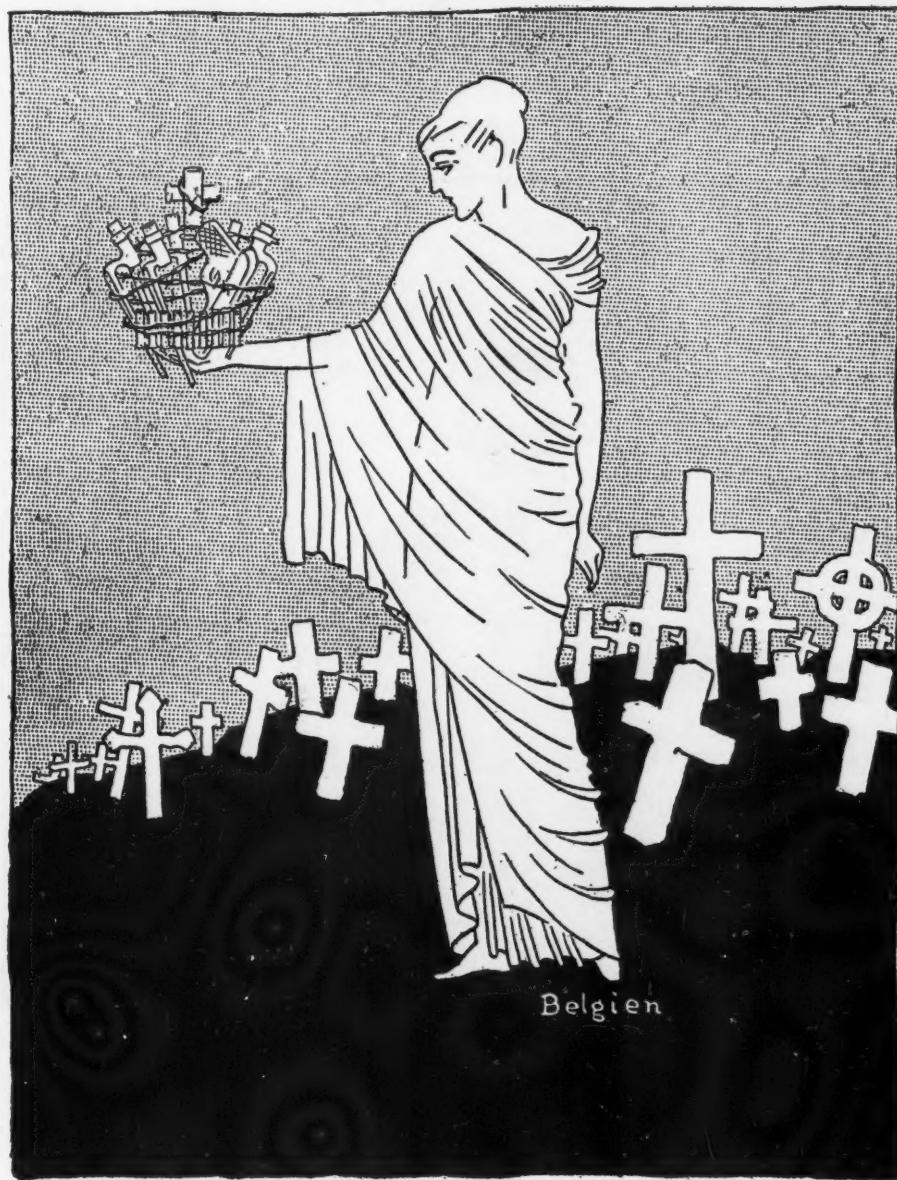


—From *The Bystander, London.*

The Gnashing Room in a Berlin Hate Club

[Swedish Cartoon]

War Crowns



—From *Söndags-Nisse, Sweden*.

This cartoon, published by the *Söndags-Nisse*, refers to the crown offered by the German Regiment of the Fusiliers of Stettin, No. 34, to their colonel, Queen Victoria of Sweden.

[German Cartoon]

Servia's Assistance



—From *Jugend*, Munich.

“Your most gracious Lordship has sent for me! How can I serve you, Sir Grey?”

“Your army, King Peter, can be of no use to us; but you might recommend me a couple of assassins!”

[The paper on “Sir Grey’s” table is marked “Casement, Findlay,” an allusion to the story, firmly believed in Germany, that Cardonnel Findlay, British Minister to Norway, conspired to kill Sir Roger Casement. The small portrait is labelled “Princip,” the assassin of the Archduke Ferdinand.]

[English Cartoon]

The Haunted Ship



GHOST OF THE OLD PILOT: "I wonder if he would drop me now?"

[Australian Cartoon]

Woodrow Wilson, Taxidermist

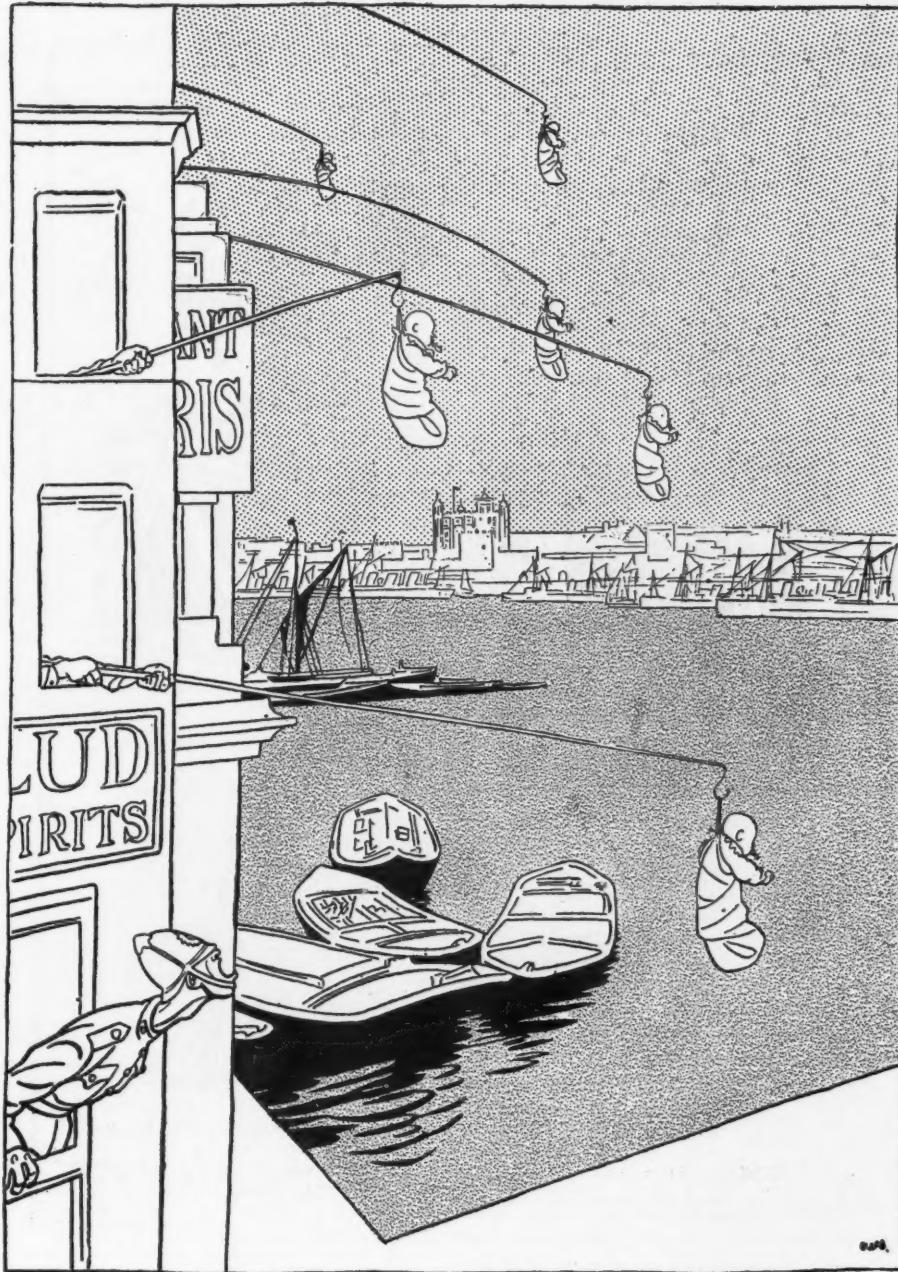


—From *The Bulletin*, Sydney, N. S. W.

"I've got to turn this durned bird into a dove somehow!"

[German Cartoon]

"Only A Baby Was Killed"



—From *Simplicissimus*, Munich.

"A Zeppelin! Quick! Out with the babies!"

[English Cartoon]

Hommage À La France!



—From *Punch, London.*

[July 7th ~~1915~~ dedicated by Great Britain to her gallant French Allies. Contributions made in honour of "France's Day" will be devoted to the French Red Cross, and should be addressed to the Right Hon. the LORD MAYOR, MANSION HOUSE, E.C., and marked "London Committee of the French Red Cross." It is hoped that a very large sum may be raised as an expression of our profound admiration and affection for our brave comrades.]

Chronology of the War

Showing Progress of Campaigns on All Fronts and Collateral Events

From July 15, 1915, Up to and Including August 12, 1915.

CAMPAIGN IN EASTERN EUROPE

July 16—A drive toward Warsaw is in progress by the Austro-German armies, Hindenburg advancing from the north while Mackensen moves from the south; Austrian forces cross the Drislester and co-operate with the armies in Poland by advancing on Bessarabia.

July 17—Russians repulse Austrians on the Vistula.

July 18—Germans and Austrians are developing a vast offensive along the whole Russian front, from the Baltic to Bessarabia, nearly 1,000 miles; at some points the Russian line is pierced; Mackensen is pushing north; Hindenburg's drive at Warsaw is rolling the Russians back toward the Narew River.

July 19—The whole Russian line between the Vistula and the Bug is falling back, fighting hard, the losses on both sides being heavy; Austrians push over the Wolica River and also advance north of Sokal.

July 20—Austro German armies advance along the whole line from the Gulf of Riga to Southern Poland; Teutons take Ostrolenka, Blonie, Grojec, and Radom; the German outposts are seventeen miles from Warsaw.

July 21—Russians make a stand north, south, and west of Warsaw, battling desperately to save the city; to the north, on the Narew River, Russians are delivering counterattacks from the fortresses of Rozan, Pultusk, and Novo Georgievsk; south of Ivangorod a great battle is being fought for the possession of the Lublin-Chelm railway.

July 22—Russian forces southeast of Warsaw withdraw into Ivangorod, which is being attacked by the Austro-Germans; in the north, the Russians have evacuated Windau, setting it on fire before leaving; the Russians are retreating in the Baltic provinces, laying the country waste as they go; a German army is heading for Riga.

July 23—Russian forts are checking the Austro-German drive on Warsaw, the Teutons being halted both along the Vistula and the Narew.

July 24—Germans tighten their grip on Warsaw from the north, strong forces crossing the Narew River after storming two of the fortresses; Russians hold fast immediately west of Warsaw and along the line

of the Lublin-Chelm railroad; Russians are driven across the Vistula at Ivangorod; in Courland an open battle has been fought, the Germans claiming victory.

July 25—Russians are threatening Mackensen's flank along the Bug River from east of Chelm to east of Lemberg; to the north, the German forces which crossed the Narew are advancing toward the Bug.

July 26—German cavalry to the number of 30,000 are operating southeast of Shavli; the cavalry is attempting to seize the Vilna-Dvinsk railway preparatory to cutting the more important Kovno-Vilna line; Mackensen is being held in his attempt to throw his troops astride the Lublin-Chelm railway; Hindenburg's troops are making progress near Novo Georgievsk.

July 27—Russians check the attempted German enveloping movement both north and south of Warsaw; by counterattacks the Russians force the Germans back across the Narew River at several points; Germans advance toward the Vilna-Petrograd railway; Mackensen fails to make further advance toward the Lublin-Chelm railway.

July 28—The Russians are holding the Austro-German forces everywhere.

July 29—Russians resist successfully at Chelm and Lublin; the Russian newspapers are preparing the public for the evacuation of Warsaw and the whole line of Vistula forts.

July 30—Mackensen takes part of the Lublin-Chelm railway; Germans break Russian lines near Warsaw at many points; Warsaw is now practically emptied of its civil population, and Russian troops are demolishing portions of the city.

July 31—Austrians occupy Lublin; Russians hold at some points north of Warsaw, but are being thrown back along the whole line elsewhere; Russian troops are evacuating Warsaw.

Aug. 1—Mackensen takes Chelm and sweeps on; Hindenburg is checked in the north.

Aug. 2—Mackensen continues to advance; in the far north the Germans take Mitau; Germans are moving 42-centimeter guns to batter Warsaw.

Aug. 4—Austro-German forces are attacking the fortresses of Warsaw, the Russians having fallen back to the outer lines of the city.

Aug. 5—Germans occupy Warsaw, capital of Poland and the third largest city in the Russian Empire, the Bavarians, commanded by Prince Leopold, taking over the city in the name of the German Emperor and his consort; the Russian armies are falling back to a new line; the Germans capture few prisoners and little artillery in Warsaw, the place having been stripped; in the north the Germans are ten miles from Riga, which has been evacuated by civilians.

Aug. 6—Austro-German forces take Ivan gorod; with the exception of the great entrenched camp of Novo Georgievsk, now invested, the Russians have evacuated the whole line of the Vistula River.

Aug. 7—Germans attack Kovno and Ossowetz.

Aug. 8—German army threatening Riga is checked; Germans cross the Vistula near Warsaw; Germans take one of the outlying forts of Novo Georgievsk; Russians are retiring slowly, and along the Narew are offering stubborn resistance; Mackensen's attempt to flank the new Russian line from the south is checked.

Aug. 9—Germans are heavily bombarding Kovno and Lomza; Russians force back Germans in the Riga region.

Aug. 10—Austro-German forces capture Lomza.

Aug. 11—Germans reach the Warsaw-Petrograd Railroad at the junction southeast of Ostrov.

Aug. 12—Russians repulse Germans near Riga and near Kovno.

CAMPAIGN IN WESTERN EUROPE.

July 16—French recapture most of the ground in the Argonne recently occupied by the German Crown Prince's army.

July 18—Germans check French at Souchez; French check Germans on the heights of the Meuse.

July 19—French repulse repeated German attacks on the heights of the Meuse, near Senvaux artillery; engagements in progress near Souchez.

July 20—British capture 150 yards of German trenches east of Ypres; Rheims is again bombarded.

July 21—French start a new offensive in the Vosges; they capture heights dominating the valley of the Fecht River from the east; Germans gain on the eastern edge of the Argonne.

July 22—French win heights both west and north of the town of Münster, ten miles southwest of Colmar, in Alsace.

July 23—There is severe fighting around Münster, in Alsace, both French and Germans claiming successes; Germans are massing on the Meuse.

July 24—Lively artillery actions near Souchez and in the Forest of Le Prêtre.

July 25—French capture advanced German trenches in the Ban-de-Sapt region of the Vosges; Germans bombard Dunkirk; British gain ground by mine operations near Zillebeke.

July 30—Germans, by the aid of flame projectors, take British trenches near Hooge, east of Ypres.

Aug. 1—British regain part of their lost trenches at Hooge.

Aug. 4—French repulse lively German attacks in the Argonne.

Aug. 6—Furious artillery fighting in Artois, the western Argonne, and the Forest of Apremont.

Aug. 7—French repulse Germans in the Argonne and the Vosges.

Aug. 8—Violent attacks on the French positions at Linge, in the Woëvre, are thrown back with great loss.

Aug. 9—British capture 1,200 yards of German trenches near Hooge, including all the ground lost on July 30.

Aug. 11—German Crown Prince's army attacks strongly in the Argonne, winning some trenches.

ITALIAN CAMPAIGN.

July 16—The Italians are strongly fortifying all positions captured from the Austrians; trenches are being excavated and platforms constructed on which to mount heavy guns; heavy artillery fighting is in progress in Carinthia.

July 18—Italians begin offensive in Cadore from encampments on Mounts Averau, Busella, and Pore.

July 20—Italians attack on a seventy-five-mile front, making a general assault from Tarvis to the Adriatic shore; Italians advance five miles in Cadore.

July 21—Italians, making a general attack along the Isonzo, gain ground, at some points piercing the Austrian lines; Italians capture the approaches to Gorizia.

July 22—Gorizia and Tolmino are practically surrounded by Italians; furious Austrian attacks fail to break the investing lines.

July 23—Italian offensive continues along the whole of the Isonzo front; Italians are making slow progress near Plava and Gorizia.

July 24—Italians are pushing operations against Gorizia, General Cardona being in personal command, under the eyes of the King.

July 25—Austrian General Staff evacuates Gorizia, which is undergoing the heaviest bombardment it has yet received; Italians destroy the strongest fort at Plava; at Ternova the Italians force back the Austrians two miles; Italians are practically the masters of the north shore of Lake Garda.

July 27—The fighting which has been going on for days along the Isonzo is declared by military observers to be one of the fiercest and most sanguinary struggles of the war, there being enormous losses on both sides.

July 28—Italians repulse 170,000 Austrians at Gorizia.
 Aug. 1—Italians take a general offensive on the Tyrol, Trentino, and Carnia fronts.
 Aug. 4—Italian pressure is increasing on Rovereto.
 Aug. 6—Italians capture the summit of Monte San Michele, which dominates Gorizia.
 Aug. 12—Austrians repulse strong Italian attacks near Zagora.

TURKISH CAMPAIGN.

July 19—British gain ground on the Gallipoli Peninsula; official report issued in London states that the British have occupied Sukesheh-Sheyukh, on the Euphrates River, in Arabia, and are now attacking the Turks below Nasiriyeh.
 July 24—British official statement says there has been further fighting in Southern Arabia, in which the British won; British now hold Sheikh Othman firmly; a Turkish attack on the Allies' positions on the Gallipoli Peninsula is repulsed.
 Aug. 2—Australians and New Zealanders take the crest of an important ridge on the Gallipoli Peninsula, improving the British position.
 Aug. 6—General Sarrail takes command of the French troops at the Dardanelles.
 Aug. 7—Heavy fighting at Ari Burnu and Sedd-el-Bahr.
 Aug. 9—Allies gain ground near Krithia.

CAMPAIGN IN AFRICA.

July 16—It is officially announced in London that on June 29 the Entente allied forces occupied Ngaundere, an important town in Central Kamerun.
 Aug. 9—It is officially announced in Paris that the French have taken several German posts in Kamerun; the French have captured that part of the Congo ceded to Germany in 1911.

NAVAL RECORD—GENERAL.

July 20—A fleet of fifty-nine Turkish sailing vessels, laden with war supplies for the Turkish Army in the Caucasus region, was destroyed during the last few days in the Black Sea, near Trebizon, by Russian torpedo boat destroyers.
 July 23—Austrian cruisers bombard the Italian east coast, damaging the Adriatic railway stations at Chienti, Campo Marzio, Fossacesia, Termoli, San Benedetto, Grottamare, and Ortona.
 July 25—British trawler Grimsby is sunk by a mine, the crew of ten being killed.
 July 26—For the past three days a bombardment of the Turkish positions inside the Dardanelles has been in progress, the Allies seeking to destroy the Turkish positions on the Asiatic shore.
 Aug. 3—It is reported from Petrograd that nearly 900 Turkish vessels have been burned or sunk in the Black Sea by Rus-

sian destroyers since the beginning of the war.

Aug. 4—A French prize court confirms the seizure of the American cotton steamer Dacia, formerly a German ship, the decision meaning that France does not recognize the transfer of belligerent vessels.

Aug. 8—A German fleet of nine battleships, twelve cruisers, and many torpedo boat destroyers attacks the entrance to the Gulf of Riga, but is repulsed, three ships being damaged by Russian mines; British patrol steamer Ramsey is sunk by German auxiliary steamer Meteor in the North Sea; subsequently the crew of the Meteor blow her up, the ship being surrounded by British cruisers.

Aug. 9—British torpedo boat destroyer Lynx is sunk in the North Sea by a mine, many of crew being lost; British auxiliary cruiser India is torpedoed and sunk off the Norwegian coast.

NAVAL RECORD—SUBMARINES.

July 16—The German submarine U-51 has been sunk in the Black Sea by Russian warships, according to information received from Varna, a Bulgarian port on the Black Sea.
 July 17—Cunarder Orduna arrives in New York after having escaped by ten feet a torpedo fired without warning by a German submarine off Queenstown on July 9; the submarine then shelled the Orduna, but missed her.
 July 18—An Austrian submarine torpedoes and sinks the Italian cruiser Giuseppe Garibaldi in the Adriatic, off Ragusa; most of the crew are saved.
 July 21—According to British statements, the battleship recently sunk in the Baltic by a British submarine was the Pommern; semi-official German statement denies that any German battleship has been sunk in the Baltic by a submarine.
 July 23—British submarines are operating in the Sea of Marmora and have sunk Turkish ships.
 July 24—German submarines sink Russian steamer Rubonia and British trawler Star of Peace, the crews being saved.
 July 25—American steamer Leelanaw, with a cargo of flax, which has been declared by Germany to be contraband, is sunk by a German submarine off the Orkney Islands; the ship is given full warning, and the crew safely makes port; German submarines sink French steamship Danae, British steamer Firth, and trawlers Henry Charles, Kathleen, Activity, Prosper, and Briton, all British; the Firth loses four men and the Briton six.
 July 26—British submarine sinks German torpedo boat destroyer near the German coast.
 July 27—German submarines sink British trawlers Rosslyn, Celtic, Cydorna, Gad-

well, Strathmore, Honoria, Cassio, Hermione, Sutton, and Emblem, the crews escaping; German submarines sink Norwegian sailing ships Harboe and G. P. Harbitz, and Danish steamer Nogill.

July 28—German submarines sink British steamer Mangara, British trawlers Iceni and Salacia, British smack Westward Ho, Swedish steamer Emma, Swedish bark Sagnadalen, and Danish schooners Maria, Neptunis, and Lena.

July 29—German submarines sink Belgian steamship Princesse Marie Jose and Swedish bark Fortune, the crews being saved.

July 30—German submarine sinks Norwegian steamship Trondhjemsfjord.

July 31—German submarine sinks the British steamer Iberian of the Leyland Line; German submarines sink eight British trawlers, crews being saved.

Aug. 7—German submarines sink British steamer Glenravel, British trawler Ocean Queen, and Swedish steamer Malmland.

Aug. 8.—British submarine in the Dardanelles sink a battleship, a gunboat, and a transport, all Turkish.

Aug. 9—A submarine of the Entente powers sinks Turkish battleship Khey'r-ed-Din Barbarossa, formerly the Kurfürst Friedrich Wilhelm of the German Navy.

Aug. 10—German submarine burns Danish schooner Jason.

Aug. 11—Italian submarine torpedoes and sinks the Austrian submarine U-12 in the Adriatic Sea; German submarines sink British steamer Oakwood, Norwegian bark Morna, French bark François, Russian bark Baltzer, and seven British trawlers; British submarines torpedo the Turkish cruiser Breslau (formerly German) in the Black Sea.

AERIAL RECORD.

July 16—French squadron of ten aeroplanes bombards the military station at Chauny.

July 19—French dirigible drops twenty-three bombs on the military railroad station and ammunition depot at Vigneulles-les-Hattonchâtel.

July 20—Thirty-eight French aviators bombard the station at Conflans-en-Janisy; six French aeroplanes bombard Colmar station, dropping sixteen shells on buildings and trains; four French aeroplanes drop forty-eight shells at the junction station at Challerange, south of Vouziers.

July 22—French aviators bombard the station of Autry, northwest of Binarville.

July 23—German aeroplanes drop bombs on the railway triangle at St. Hilaire, in Champagne.

July 27—Austrian aeroplane drops twelve bombs on Verona.

Aug. 6—Italian dirigibles bombard Austrian encampments and railroad stations.

Aug. 9—Twenty-eight French aeroplanes bombard the station and factories of Saarbrücken, northeast of Metz.

Aug. 10—A squadron of Zeppelins bombards the English east coast.

GERMANY.

July 17—The Foreign Office has issued a report on conditions in Belgium during the early days of the war, which is a reply to the findings of Lord Bryce's Belgian Atrocity Commission.

Aug. 1—The Teutonic allies, after a year of war, occupy 78,378 square miles of hostile territory.

GREAT BRITAIN.

July 20—Largely through the work and influence of Lloyd George, the Welsh coal miners' strike is ended.

July 27—The casualties in the British Army and Navy have reached a total of 330,995; the total military casualties up to July 18 were 321,889, and the total naval casualties up to July 20 were 9,106.

July 31—British estimates show that the first year of the war has given a total loss in men killed of 2,500,000 and a total loss in men wounded of 5,000,000.

RUSSIA.

Aug. 9—Petrograd newspapers announce that the Czar has rejected an offer of peace made to him by the Kaiser through the King of Denmark.

UNITED STATES.

July 16—Formal notice is given to Great Britain through Ambassador Page that the United States holds that the rights of Americans, who have cases before British prize courts, rest upon international law, and not upon various Orders in Council or municipal law.

July 24—The text is made public of the third note from the United States to Germany on the Lusitania and on submarine warfare generally; President Wilson has called for reports on the subject of national defense.

July 25—Telegrams from people in all parts of the United States, approving the last note to Germany, are received by President Wilson; the Berlin press assails the note, declaring it is unneutral and threatening.

July 26—British Government replies to the American note of March 30, protesting against the British Orders in Council aiming to cut off overseas trade with Germany.

Aug. 2—Two supplemental notes are received from Great Britain defending her blockade; a note is received from Germany upholding her contentions in the Frye case.

RELIEF.

July 25—Official Red Cross statement made public at Washington says that American Red Cross doctors and nurses will be withdrawn from the European battle front on Oct. 1, because of lack of funds to maintain them longer at their stations.

What is an Internal Bath?

By R. W. BEAL

MUCH has been said and volumes have been written describing at length the many kinds of baths civilized man has indulged in from time to time. Every possible resource of the human mind has been brought into play to fashion new methods of bathing, but, strange as it may seem, the most important, as well as the most beneficial of all baths, the "Internal Bath," has been given little thought. The reason for this is probably due to the fact that few people seem to realize the tremendous part that internal bathing plays in the acquiring and maintaining of health.

If you were to ask a dozen people to define an internal bath, you would have as many different definitions, and the probability is that not one of them would be correct. To avoid any misconception as to what constitutes an internal bath, let it be said that a hot-water enema is no more an internal bath than a bill of fare is a dinner.

If it were possible and agreeable to take the great mass of thinking people to witness an average post-mortem, the sights they would see and the things they would learn would prove of such lasting benefit and impress them so profoundly that further argument in favor of internal bathing would be unnecessary to convince them. Unfortunately, however, it is not possible to do this, profitable as such an experience would doubtless prove to be. There is, then, only one other way to get this information into their hands, and that is by acquainting them with such knowledge as will enable them to appreciate the value of this long-sought-for, health-producing necessity.

Few people realize what a very little thing is necessary sometimes to improve their physical condition. Also, they have almost no conception of how a little carelessness, indifference or neglect can be the fundamental cause of the most virulent disease. For instance, that universal disorder from which almost all humanity is suffering, known as "constipation" "auto-intoxication," "auto-infection," and a multitude of other terms, is not only curable but pre-

ventable through the consistent practice of internal bathing.

How many people realize that normal functioning of the bowels and a clean intestinal tract make it impossible to become sick? "Man of to-day is only fifty per cent. efficient." Reduced to simple English, this means that most men are trying to do a man's portion of work on half a man's power. This applies equally to women.

That it is impossible to continue to do this indefinitely must be apparent to all. Nature never intended the delicate human organism to be operated on a hundred-percent. overload. A machine could not stand this and not break down, and the body certainly cannot do more than a machine. There is entirely too much unnecessary and avoidable sickness in the world.

How many people can you name, including yourself, who are physically vigorous, healthy, and strong? The number is appallingly small.

It is not a complex matter to keep in condition, but it takes a little time, and in these strenuous days people have time to do everything else necessary for the attainment of happiness but the most essential thing of all—that of giving their bodies their proper care.

Would you believe that five to ten minutes of time devoted to systematic internal bathing can make you healthy and maintain your physical efficiency indefinitely? Granting that such a simple procedure as this will do what is claimed for it, is it not worth while to learn more about that which will accomplish this end? Internal Bathing will do this, and it will do it for people of all ages and in all conditions of health and disease.

People don't seem to realize, strange to say, how important it is to keep the body free from accumulated body-waste (poisons). Their doing so would prevent the absorption into the blood of the poisonous excretions of the body, and health would be the inevitable result.

If you would keep your blood pure, your heart normal, your eyes clear, your complex-

ion clean, your mind keen, your blood pressure normal, your nerves relaxed, and be able to enjoy the vigor of youth in your declining years, practice internal bathing and begin to-day.

Now that your attention has been called to the importance of internal bathing, it may be that a number of questions will suggest themselves to your mind. You will probably want to know WHAT an Internal Bath is, WHY people should take them, and the WAY to take them. These and countless other questions are all answered in a booklet entitled "THE WHAT, THE WHY AND THE WAY OF INTERNAL BATHING," written by Doctor Chas. A. Tyrrell, the inventor of the "J. B. L. Cascade," whose life-long study and research along this line make him the pre-eminent authority on this subject. Not only has internal bathing saved and prolonged Dr. Tyrrell's own life, but the lives of a multitude of hopeless individuals have been equally spared and prolonged. No book has ever been written containing such a vast amount of practical information to the business man, the worker, and the housewife; all that is necessary to

secure this book is to write to Dr. Chas. A. Tyrrell at Number 134 West 65th Street, New York City, and mention having read this article in CURRENT HISTORY, and same will be immediately mailed to you free of all cost or obligation.

Perhaps you realize now, more than ever, the truth of these statements, and if the reading of this article will result in a proper appreciation on your part of the value of internal bathing, it will have served its purpose. What you will want to do now is to avail yourself of the opportunity for learning more about the subject, and your writing for this book will give you that information. Do not put off doing this, but *send for the book now* while the matter is fresh in your mind.

"Procrastination is the thief of time." A thief is one who steals something. Don't allow procrastination to cheat you out of your opportunity to get this valuable information which is free for the asking. If you would be natural, be healthy. It is unnatural to be sick. Why be unnatural, when it is such a simple thing to be well?—[Adv.]

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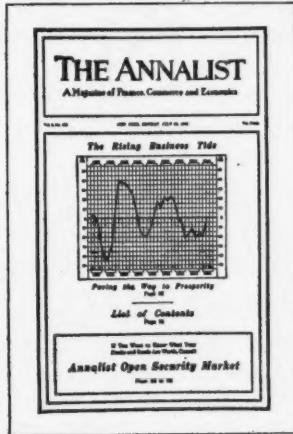
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